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ELEMENTS
OF
GENERAL HISTORY,
ANCIENT AND MODERN.

TO WHICH ARE ADDED
A COMPARATIVE VIEW OF ANCIENT AND MODERN GEOGRAPHY,
AND A
TABLE OF CHRONOLOGY.

BY
PROFESSOR TYTLER,
LORD WOODHOUSELEE.

A New Edition,

WITH
ADDITIONS, CORRECTIONS, AND ILLUSTRATIONS,
AND A
CONTINUATION TO THE PRESENT TIME.

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PREFACE

TO THE

FIRST EDITION.

THE following work contains the outlines of a course of lectures on General History, delivered for many years in the University of Edinburgh, and received with a portion of the public approbation amply sufficient to compensate the labour of the author. He began to compose these elements principally with the view of furnishing an aid to the students attending those lectures; but he soon conceived, that by giving a little more amplitude to their composition, he might render the work of more general utility. As now given to the public, he would willingly flatter himself it may be not only serviceable to youth, in furnishing a regular plan for the prosecution of this most important study, but useful even to those who have acquired a competent knowledge of general history from the perusal of the works of detached historians, and who wish to methodise that knowledge, or even to refresh their memory on material facts and the order of events.

In the composition of these elements the author has endeavoured to unite with the detail of facts

so much of reflection, as to aid the mind in the formation of rational views of the causes and consequences of events, as well as of the policy of the actors ; but he has anxiously guarded against that speculative refinement which has sometimes entered into works of this nature, which, professing to exhibit the philosophy or the spirit of history, are more fitted to display the writer's ingenuity as a theorist, or his talents as a rhetorician, than to instruct the reader in the more useful knowledge of historical facts.

As the progress of the human mind forms a capital object in the study of history, the state of the arts and sciences, the religion, laws, government, and manners of nations, are material parts, even in an elementary work of this nature. The history of literature is a most important article in this study. The author has therefore endeavoured to give to each of these topics its due share of attention ; and in that view, they are separately treated, in distinct sections, at particular periods. Of the defects of this work the author is more sensible than perhaps any other person can be. Of any merits it may possess beyond those of simplicity and perspicuity, those are the best judges who have an extensive knowledge of the subject, and who know the difficulty of giving general views, and of analysing a science so comprehensive and complicated as *Universal History*.

ALEX. FRASER TYTLER.

Edinburgh.

ADVERTISEMENT

TO THE

PRESENT EDITION.

THE admitted superiority of Tytler's *Elements of General History* over all other works of a similar class, renders it a matter of great regret that its learned author, who died in 1813, did not carry it down to a later period than the close of the seventeenth century, especially as the events of the eighteenth century were of so important and varied a character.

I have, however, in the present edition, added a continuation, carrying the work down to the present time; and by revising and comparing the whole work with the writings of the most eminent ancient and modern historians, and where it appeared necessary, either adding corrective and illustrative notes, or amplifying the original text by additions (which are inserted in brackets,) endeavoured to render the work the best historical class-book extant. How far I have succeeded I leave others to judge; suffice it to say that my purpose is simply that of rendering the mass of my fellow countrymen better

informed in matters of general history, and I trust as the work is published at a price which renders its pages accessible to the peasant as well as the peer, I have not laboured entirely in vain.

F. L.

London, August, 1846.

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INTRODUCTION.

1. THE value of any science is to be estimated according to its tendency to promote improvement, either in private virtue, or in those qualities which render man extensively useful in society. Some objects of pursuit have a secondary utility ; in furnishing rational amusement, which, relieving the mind at intervals from the fatigue of serious occupation, invigorates and prepares it for fresh exertion. It is the perfection of any science, to unite these advantages, to promote the advancement of public and private virtue, and to supply such a degree of amusement, as to supersede the necessity of recurring to frivolous pursuits for the sake of relaxation. Under this description falls the science of History.

2. "History," says Dionysius of Halicarnassus, is "Philosophy teaching by examples." The superior efficacy of example to precept is universally acknowledged. All the laws of morality and rules of conduct are verified by experience, and are constantly submitted to its test and examination. History, which adds to our own experience an immense treasure of the experience of others, furnishes innumerable proofs, by which we may verify all the precepts of morality and of prudence.

3. History, besides its general advantages, has a distinct species of utility to different men, according to their several ranks in society, and occupations in life.

4. In this country it is an indispensable duty of every man of liberal birth, to be acquainted, in a certain degree, with the science of politics ; and History is the school of politics. It opens to us the springs of human affairs ; the causes of the rise, grandeur, revolutions, and fall of empires. It points out the reciprocal influence of government and of national manners ; it dissipates prejudices, nourishes the love of our country, and directs to the best means of its improvement : it illustrates equally the blessings of political union, and the miseries of faction ; the danger, on the one hand, of uncontrolled liberty, and, on the other, the debasing influence of despotic power.

5. It is necessary that the study of History should be prosecuted according to a regular plan; for this science, more perhaps than any other, is liable to perversion from its proper use. With some it is no better than an idle amusement; with others it is the food of vanity; with a third class it fosters the prejudices of party, and leads to political bigotry. It is dangerous for those who, even with the best intentions, seek for historical knowledge, to pursue the study without a guide, for no science has been so little methodized. The sources of prejudice are infinite; and the mind of youth should not be left undirected amidst the erring, the partial, and contradictory representations of historians. Besides the importance of being able to discriminate truth from falsehood, the attention ought to be directed only to useful truths. Much danger arises from the perusal of memoirs, collections of anecdotes, &c.; for many of those works exhibit the most depraved pictures, weaken our confidence in virtue, and present the most unfavourable views of human nature.

6. There are many difficulties which attend the attempt of forming a proper plan of study, and giving an instructive view of general history. Utility is to be reconciled with amusement, prejudices are to be encountered, variety of taste to be consulted, political opinions balanced, judgment and decision exercised on topics keenly controverted. The proposer of such a plan ought, therefore, to be possessed equally of firmness of mind and moderation of sentiment. In many cases he must abandon popularity, for the calm approbation of his own conscience. Disregarding every partial and inferior consideration, he must direct his view solely to the proper end of all education,—*the forming of good men and good citizens.*

7. The object and general purpose of the following Course is to exhibit a progressive view of the state of mankind from the earliest stages of which we have any authentic accounts, down to the close of the seventeenth century; to delineate the origin of states and of empires, the great outlines of their history, the revolutions which they have undergone, the causes which have contributed to their rise and grandeur, and operated to their decline and extinction.

For these purposes it is necessary to bestow particular attention on the manners of nations, their laws, the nature of their governments, their religion, their intellectual improvements, and their progress in the arts and sciences.

PLAN OF THE COURSE.

Two opposite methods have been followed in giving academical lectures on the study of history ; the one exhibiting a strict chronological arrangement of events, upon the plan of Turselline's Epitome ; the other, a series of disquisitions on the various heads or titles of public law, and the doctrines of politics, illustrated by examples drawn from ancient and modern history. Both these methods are liable to objection : the former furnishes only a dry chronicle of events, which nothing connects together but the order of time ; the latter is insufficient for the most important purposes of history, the tracing of events to their causes, the detection of the springs of human actions, the display of the progress of society, and of the rise and fall of states and empires : finally, by confining history to the exemplification of the doctrine of politics, we lose its effect as a school of morals.

In the following lectures we hold a middle course between these extremes, and endeavour, by remedying the imperfection of each, to unite if possible the advantages of both.

While so much regard is had to chronology as is necessary for showing the progress of mankind in society, and communicating just ideas of the state of the world in all the different ages to which authentic history extends, we shall, in the delineation of the rise and fall of empires and their revolutions, pay more attention to the connection of *subject* than that of *time*.

In this view, we must reject the common method of arranging general history according to epochs or eras.

When the world is viewed at any period either of ancient or of modern history, we generally observe one nation or empire predominant, to which all the rest bear, as

it were, an under part, and to whose history we find that the principal events in the annals of other nations may be referred from some natural connection. This predominant empire or state it is proposed to exhibit to view as the principal object, whose history therefore is to be more fully delineated, while the rest are only incidentally touched when they come to have a natural connection with the principal.

The Jewish history, belonging to a different department of academical education, enters not into the plan of these lectures, though we often resort to the sacred writings for detached facts illustrative of the manners of ancient nations.

In the ancient world, among the profane nations, the Greeks are the earliest people who make a distinguished figure, and whose history is at the same time authentic.

The Greeks owed their civilization to the Egyptians and Phœnicians. The Grecian history is therefore properly introduced by a short account of these nations, and of the Assyrians, their rivals, conquered at one time by the Egyptians, and conquerors afterwards of them in their turn.

Rise of the independent states of Greece, and singular constitution of the two great republics of Sparta and Athens.

The war of Greece with Persia induces a short account of the preceding periods of the history of that nation, the rise of the Persian monarchy, the nature of its government, manners, and religion.

The Grecian history is pursued through all the revolutions of the nation, till Greece becomes a province of the Roman empire.

Political reflections applicable to the history of the states of Greece.—Progress of the Greeks in the arts.—Of the Greek poets, historians, philosophers.

Rome, after the conquest of Greece, becomes the leading object of attention.

Origin of the Romans.—Nature of their government under the kings.—Easy substitution of the consular for the regal dignity.—Subsequent changes in the constitution.—Progress to a democracy.—Extension of the Roman arms.—Conquest of Italy.—Wars with foreign nations.

The Punic wars open a collateral view to the history of Carthage and of Sicily.

Success of the Roman arms in Asia, Macedonia, and Greece.—Opulence of the republic from her conquests, and corruption of her manners.—The civil wars, and ruin of the commonwealth.

Particulars which mark the genius and national spirit of the Romans:—Education,—Laws,—Literary character,—Art of war,—Public and private manners.

Rome under the emperors:—Artful policy by which the first emperors disguised their absolute authority.—Decline of the ambitious character of the Romans.—Easy submission to the loss of civil liberty.—The military spirit purposely abased by the emperors.—The empire divided becomes a languid body, without internal vigour.—The Gothic nations pour down from the North.—Italy conquered successively by the Heruli, Ostrogoths, and Lombards;—extinction of the western empire.

The manners, genius, laws, and government of the Gothic nations form an important object of inquiry, from their influence on the manners and policy of the modern European kingdoms.

In the delineation of Modern History, the leading objects of attention are more various; the scene is oftener changed; nations, too, which for a while occupy the chief attention, become for a time subordinate, and afterwards re-assume their rank as principal: yet the same plan is pursued as in the department of ancient history; the picture is occupied only by one great object at a time, to which all the rest hold an inferior rank, and are taken notice of only when connected with the principal.

Upon the fall of the Western Empire, the Saracens are the first who distinguish themselves by the extension of their conquests, and the splendour of their dominion.

While the Saracens extend their arms in the East, and in Africa, a new empire of the West is founded by Charlemagne.—The rise and progress of the monarchy of the Franks.—The origin of the Feudal System.—State of the European manners in the age of Charlemagne.—Government, Arts and Sciences, Literature.

As collateral objects of attention, we survey the remains of the Roman empire in the East; the conquests and settlements of the Normans; the foundation and progress of the temporal dominion of the church of Rome; the conquest of Spain by the Saracens.

The conquest of England by the Normans solicits our attention to the history of Britain. Retrospective view of the British history, from its earliest period to the end of the Anglo-Saxon government in England.^c—Observations on the government, laws, and manners of the Anglo-Saxons.

Collateral view of the state of the continental kingdoms of Europe during the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries.—France under the Capetian race of monarchs.—Conquests of the Normans in Italy and Sicily.—State of the Northern kingdoms of Europe.—The Eastern Empire.—Empire of Germany.—Disputes of supremacy between the Popes and the Emperors.

The history of Britain still the principal object of attention.—England under the kings of the Norman line, and the first princes of the Plantagenet branch.—The conquest of Ireland under Henry II. introduces an anticipated progressive view of the political connection between England and Ireland down to the present time.—As we proceed in the delineation of the British history, we note particularly those circumstances which mark the growth of the English constitution.

At this period all the kingdoms of Europe join in the Crusades.—A brief account is given of those enterprises.—Moral and political effects of the Crusades on the nations of Europe.—Origin of Chivalry, and rise of Romantic Fiction.

Short connected sketch of the state of the European nations after the Crusades.—Rise of the house of Austria.—Decline of the Feudal government in France.—Establishment of the Swiss republics.—Disorders in the Papedom.—Council of Constance.

The history of Britain resumed.—England under Henry III. and Edward I.—The conquest of Wales.—The history of Scotland at this period intimately connected with that of England.—View of the Scottish history from Malcolm Canmore to Robert Bruce.—State of both kingdoms during the reigns of Edward II. and III.—The history of France connected with that of Britain.—France itself won by Henry V.

The state of the East at this period affords the most interesting object of attention.—The progress of the Ottoman arms retarded for a while by the conquests of Tamerlane and of Scanderberg.—The Turks prosecute their vic-

tories under Mahomet the Great, to the total extinction of the Constantinopolitan empire.—The constitution and policy of the Turkish empire.

France, in this age, emancipates herself from the Feudal servitude; and Spain, by the union of Arragon and Castile, and the fall of the kingdom of the Moors, becomes one monarchy under Ferdinand and Isabella.

The history of Britain is resumed.—Sketch of the history of England down to the reign of Henry VIII. ;—of Scotland, during the reigns of the five Jameses.—Delineation of the ancient constitution of the Scottish government.

The end of the fifteenth century is a remarkable æra in the history of Europe. Learning and the sciences underwent at that time a very rapid improvement, and after ages of darkness, shone out at once with surprising lustre.—A connected view is presented of the progress of Literature in Europe, from its revival down to this period.—In the same age, the advancement of Navigation, and the course to India by the Cape of Good Hope, explored by the Portuguese, affect the commerce of all the European kingdoms.

The age of Charles V. unites in one connected view the affairs of Germany, of the Netherlands, of Spain, of France, of England, and of Italy. The discovery of the New World, the Reformation in Germany and in England, and the splendour of the Fine Arts under the pontificate of Leo X. render this period one of the most interesting in the annals of mankind.

The pacification of Europe by the treaty of Château Cambresis allows us for a while to turn our attention to the state of Asia. A short sketch is given of the modern history of Persia, and the state of the other kingdoms of Asia, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; the history of India; the manners, laws, arts and sciences, and religion of the Hindoos; the history of China and Japan; the antiquity of the Chinese empire, its manners, laws, government, and attainments in the arts and sciences.

Returning to Europe, the attention is directed to the state of the continental kingdoms in the age of Philip II. —Spain, the Netherlands, France, and England, present a various and animated picture.

England, under Elizabeth.—The progress of the Reformation in Scotland.—The distracted reign of Mary

Queen of Scots.—The history of Britain pursued without interruption down to the Revolution, and here closed by a sketch of the progress of the English Constitution, and an examination of its nature at this period, when it became fixed and determined.

The history of the Southern continental kingdoms is brought down to the end of the reign of Louis XIV. ; of the Northern, to the conclusion of the reigns of Charles XII. of Sweden, and of Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy.

We finish this view of Universal History, by a survey of the state of the Arts and Sciences, and of the progress of Literature in Europe during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

The Chronology observed in this View of Universal History, is that of Archbishop Usher, which is founded on the Hebrew text of the Sacred Writings. A short Table of Chronology for immediate reference is subjoined to these Heads.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

PART FIRST.

I. IT is a difficult task to delineate the state of mankind in the earliest ages of the world. We want information sufficient to give us positive ideas on the subject ; but as man advances in civilization, and in proportion as history becomes useful and important, its certainty increases, and its materials are more abundant.

Various notions have been formed with respect to the population of the antediluvian world and its physical appearance ; but as these are rather matters of theory than of fact, they scarcely fall within the province of history : and they are of the less consequence, since we are certain the state of those antediluvian ages could have had no material influence on the times which succeeded them.

The books of Moses afford the earliest authentic history of the ages immediately following the deluge.

About one hundred and fifty years after that event, Nimrod (the Belus* of profane historians), [the son of Chus, grandson of Cham, and great-grandson of Noah], built Babylon, on the eastern side of the river Euphrates, and Ninevah, which became the capital of the Assyrian empire. [B.C. 2237.]

Ninus [the son of Nimrod] and his queen are said to have raised the empire of Assyria to so high a degree of splendour, as to be reputed [by most of the profane authors] the founders of it.

* Belus or Baal, signifies Lord ; under that appellation Nimrod after his death was worshipped as a god.—ED.

From the death of Ninyas, the son of Ninus and Semiramis, down to the revolt of the Medes under Sardanapalus, a period of eight hundred years, there is a chasm in the history of Assyria and Babylon. This is to be supplied only from conjecture.

The earliest periods of the Egyptian history are equally uncertain with those of the Assyrian.—Menes is accounted the first sovereign under the regal government, after the patriarchal regimen of the family of Misor, or Misraim of the Holy Scriptures, grandson of Noah. Some make him the Osiris of Egypt, the inventor of arts, and the civilizer of a great part of the Eastern world.

After Menes or Osiris, Egypt appears to have been [divided into various states or dynasties, the four principal being Thebes, Thin, Memphis and Tanis], and the people to have attained a considerable degree of civilization. But a period of barbarism succeeded [after the invasion of the Hyksos, a body of marauders from Arabia or Phœnicia, who conquered a great part of the country, and established the dynasty known as] the Shepherd-kings,* consisting for the space of some centuries, down to the age of Sesostris,† [or Rhamses the Great, who] united the separate principalities into one kingdom, regulated his policy with admirable skill, and distinguished himself equally by his foreign conquests, and by his domestic administration. [B.C. 1722.]

II.—*Considerations on the Nature of the first Governments, and on the Laws, Customs, Arts and Sciences, of the Early Ages.*

SECT. 1.—The earliest government is the patriarchal, which subsists in the rudest periods of society.

The patriarchal government leads by an easy progress to the monarchical.

The first monarchies must have been very weak, and their territory extremely limited. The idea of security

* Rollin informs us, that the Shepherd-kings governed Egypt, about 260 years, and that they were eventually expelled by Thethmosis or Amosis, King of Lower Egypt, B.C. 1825.—ED.

† Sesostris was the most distinguished king of this race, he marched victoriously through Africa and Asia, penetrating to the countries beyond the Ganges, and enriched Egypt by the booty he acquired. Herodotus saw in Asia Minor, from one sea to the other, monuments of his victories. In several countries was read, the following inscription, engraved on pillars: *Sesostris king of kings, and lord of lords, subdued this country by the power of his arms.*—ED.

precedes that of conquest. In forming our notions of the extent of the first monarchies, we are deceived by the word king, which, according to modern ideas, is connected with an extent of territory and a proportional power. The kings in Scripture are no more than the chiefs of tribes. There were five kings in the vale of Sodom. Joshua defeated in his wars thirty-one kings, and Adonizedek threescore and ten.

The regal office was in all probability at first elective. The transmission of the sceptre to the heir of the last monarch arises in time from the experience of the mischiefs attending frequent elections, and the disorders occasioned by ambitious men aspiring to that dignity.

The first ideas of conquest must have proceeded from a people in the state of shepherds, who necessarily changing their pastures, would probably make incursions on the appropriated territory of their neighbours. Such were the Arabian or Phœnician invaders, who under the name of Shepherd-kings, conquered Egypt. But kingdoms so founded could have little duration. Laws and good policy, essential to the stability of kingdoms, are the fruit of intellectual refinement, and arise only in a state of society considerably advanced in civilization.

The progress from barbarism to civilization is slow; because every step in the progress is the result of necessity, after the experience of an error, or the strong feeling of a want.

SECT. 2. *Origin of Laws.*—Certain political writers have supposed, that in the infancy of society penal laws must have been extremely mild. We presume the contrary to have been rather the case; as the more barbarous the people, the stronger must be the bonds to restrain them: and history confirms the supposition, in the ancient laws of the Jews, Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, and Gauls.

Among the earliest laws of all states are those regarding marriage; for the institution of marriage is coeval with the formation of society. The first sovereigns of all states are said to have instituted marriage; and the earliest laws provided encouragements to matrimony.

Among the ancient nations, the husband purchased his wife by money or personal services. Among the Assyrians, the marriageable women were put up to auction;

and the price obtained for the more beautiful, was assigned as a dowry to the more homely.

The laws of succession are next in order to those of marriage. The father had the absolute power in the division of his estate. But primogeniture was understood to confer certain rights.

Laws arise necessarily and imperceptibly from the condition of society; and each particular law may be traced from the state of manners or the political emergency which gave it birth. Hence we perceive the intimate connexion between history and jurisprudence, and the light which they must necessarily throw upon each other. The laws of a country are best interpreted from its history; and its uncertain history is best elucidated by its ancient laws.

SECT. 3. *Earliest methods of authenticating contracts.*—Before the invention of writing, contracts, testaments, sales, marriages, and the like, were transacted in public. The Jewish and the Grecian histories furnish many examples. Some barbarous nations authenticate their bargains by exchanging symbols or tallies. The Peruvians accomplished most of the purposes of writing by knotted cords of various colours, termed *Quipos*.—The Mexicans communicated intelligence to a distance by painting. Other nations used an abridged mode of painting, or hieroglyphics. Before the use of writing, the Egyptians used hieroglyphics for transmitting and recording knowledge: after writing, they employed it for veiling or concealing it from the vulgar.

SECT. 4. *Methods for recording Historical Facts, and publishing Laws.*—Poetry and song were the first vehicles of history, and the earliest mode of promulgating laws. The songs of the bards record a great deal of ancient history: the laws of many of the ancient nations were composed in verse.

Stones, rude and sculptured, *tumuli* and mounds of earth, are the monuments of history among a barbarous people; and columns, triumphal arches, coins, and medals, among the more refined.—These likewise illustrate the progress of manners and of the arts.

SECT 5. *Religious Institutions.*—Among the earliest institutions of all nations, are those which regard religi-

ous worship. The sentiment of religion is deeply rooted in the human mind. An uninstructed savage will infer the existence of a God and his attributes, from the general order and mechanism of nature ; and even its temporary irregularities lead to religious veneration or dread of the unknown Power which conducts it.

Before conceiving the idea of a Being utterly imperceptible to his senses, a savage would naturally seek that Being in the most striking objects of sense to which he owed his most apparent benefits: The sun, extending his beneficial influence over all nature, was among the earliest objects of worship. The fire presented a symbol of the sun. The other celestial bodies naturally attracted their share of veneration.

The symbolical mode of writing led to many peculiarities of the idolatrous worship of the ancient nations. Animals, symbolical of the attributes of Deity, became gods themselves. The same god represented by different animals, was supposed to have changed himself into different forms. The gratitude and veneration for men whose lives had been eminently useful, joined to the belief of the soul's immortality, led to the *apotheosis* of heroes. Many excellent reflections on idolatry and polytheism are found in the apocryphal book called *The Wisdom of Solomon*.

The priesthood was anciently exercised by the chief or monarch ; but as an empire became extensive, the monarch exercised this office by his delegates ; and hence an additional source of veneration for the priesthood. The priests were the framers and the administrators of the laws.

SCOT. 6. *Arts and Sciences of the Ancient Nations*.—The useful arts are the offspring of necessity ; the sciences are the fruit of ease and leisure. The construction of huts, of weapons of war, and of hunting, are the earliest arts. Agriculture is not practised till the tribe becomes stationary, and property is defined and secured.

The sciences arise in a cultivated society, where individuals enjoy that leisure which invites to study and speculation. The priests, maintained in that condition by the monarch, were the earliest cultivators of science. Egyptian science was confined to the priests. Astronomy, which is among the earliest of the sciences, owed its origin

propably to superstition. Medicine was among early sciences. All rude nations have a pharmacy of their own, equal in general to their wants. Luxury, creating new and more complex diseases, requires a profounder knowledge of medicine and of the animal economy.

III.—Of the Egyptians.

1. A great portion of the knowledge and attainments of the ancient nations, and by consequence of those of the moderns, is to be traced to Egypt. The Egyptians instructed the Greeks; the Greeks performed the same office to the Romans; and the two latter have transmitted much of that knowledge to the world of which we are in possession at this day.*

2. The antiquity of this empire, though we give no credit to the chronicles of Manétho,† which, like those of the Chaldeans, Chinese, and Indians, appear clearly to have been more astronomical than historical, must be allowed to be very great. The Mosaic writings represent Egypt, about four hundred and thirty years after the flood, as a flourishing and a well-regulated kingdom. The nature of the country itself affords a presumption of the great antiquity of the empire, and its early civilization.

* For the supposed origin of Egyptian sciences, see Part II. sect. 50.

† Manétho, an Egyptian high-priest, and keeper of the sacred archives of Egypt, surnamed Mendesian, lived under Ptolemy Philadelphus, B.C. 261. He wrote the history of his country in Greek, which has often been quoted and commended by the ancients, particularly Josephus. It was chiefly collected from the writings of Mercurius, and other ancient memoirs preserved in the archives of the Egyptian temples. The few fragments of this history that have been preserved, contain little else than a list of thirty kings of different races or dynasties, the order of their succession is not given. Rollin observes, if they are allowed to be successive, they make up a series of time of more than 5300 years, to the reign of Alexander the Great, which is a palpable absurdity; besides we find in Eratosthenes (an historian of Cyrene), who was invited to Alexandria by Ptolemy Evergetes, a catalogue of thirty-eight kings of Thebes, all different from those of Manétho. The clearing up of these difficulties has put the learned to a great deal of trouble and labour. The most effectual way to reconcile such contradictions, is to suppose that the kings of these different dynasties, did not reign successively one after the other, but many of them at the same time, and in different countries of Egypt.

Sir J. Gardner Wilkinson, in his "Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians," (Lond. 8vo. 1841, 3 vols.), has given us the dynasties of the Egyptian kings, according to Manétho, on the authority of Africanus and Eusebius, and also the list of Egyptian monarchs according to Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus, with observations thereon; in which he observes, that although many of the dynasties of Manétho are questionable, he is far from rejecting him, inasmuch as recent discoveries have in many instances verified his statements.—Ed.

From the fertilizing effects of the waters of the Nile, it is probable that agriculture would be more early practised there than in regions less favoured by nature. The periodical inundations of the Nile are owing to the vapours of the Mediterranean condensed on the mountains of Ethiopia.

3. The government of Egypt was an hereditary monarchy.—The powers of the monarch were limited by constitutional laws; yet in many respects his authority was extremely despotical.—The functions of the sovereign were partly civil and partly religious.—The king had the chief regulation of all that regarded the worship of the gods, and the priests, considered as his deputies, and having more skill and learning than the other orders, filled all the offices of state. They were both the legislators and the civil judges; they imposed and levied the taxes, and regulated weights and measures.—The great national tribunal was composed of thirty judges, chosen from the three principal departments or cities of the empire, Heliopolis, Thebes, and Memphis.—The administration of justice was defrayed by the sovereign, who exacted an oath from his judges, not to yield obedience even to himself, if he passed any unjust sentence, and as parties were their own advocates, the expense was no burthen upon the people. So tender were they in regard to the purity and impartiality of their decisions, that, besides excluding professed advocates and public pleaders, that no extraordinary gifts of oratory might mislead them, every case was laid before them in writing, that the parties might stand on an equal footing, and on the exact merits of the question.—The penal laws of Egypt were uncommonly severe.—Female chastity was most rigidly protected, and personal security so guarded by the laws, that whoever saw another attacked, and neglected to render him assistance, was liable to be punished as an assassin.—Funeral rites were not conferred but after a scrutiny into the life of the deceased, and by a judicial decree approving of his character. The characters even of the sovereigns were subject to this inquiry. Daily, indeed, during their lives, in the morning service of the temple, and in the presence of the whole court, were their kings, in a remarkable manner, and with singular delicacy, so reminded of every regal virtue, and of the baseness of every opposite quality, as pretty generally to ensure their

conformity to the laws; as a proof of which, most of them are reported to have passed the last ordeal of the posthumous judgment before-mentioned with credit and respect, and to have been, on their deaths, very sincerely lamented by their subjects.

There was an extraordinary regulation in Egypt regarding the borrowing of money. As it was usual to preserve, in a remarkable manner, the dead bodies of their ancestors, the borrower gave in pledge the body of his father, and was deprived of funeral rites if he failed to redeem it.*

Population was encouraged by law, and every man was bound to maintain and educate the children born to him of his slaves.

The manners of the Egyptians were very early formed. They had a singular attachment to ancient usages; a dislike to innovation; a jealousy and abhorrence of strangers.

4. They preceded most of the ancient nations in the knowledge of the useful arts, and in the cultivation of the sciences.—Architecture was early brought to great perfection.—Their buildings, the pyramids, obelisks, &c., have, through the mildness of the climate, suffered little injury from time. Pliny describes the contrivance for transporting the obelisks. The whole country abounds with the remains of ancient magnificence. Thebes in Upper Egypt was one of the most splendid cities in the universe.

The pyramids are supposed to have been erected about nine hundred years B.C.† They were probably the sepul-

* Herodotus speaks of king Asychis thus: "Finding that commercial interests suffered from an extreme want of money, he passed an ordinance that any one might borrow money, giving the body of his deceased father as a pledge, by which law the sepulchre of the debtor fell into the power of the creditor; for if the debt was not discharged, he could neither be buried with his family in that or any other tomb, nor was he suffered to inter any of his children." The debtor who did not redeem his pledge was deemed infamous.—Ed.

† There were three pyramids in Egypt, more famous than the rest, they were placed at irregular distances along the foot of the Libyan hills, near the west bank of the Nile, not very far from the city of Memphis. The largest one of them has generally been deemed one of the seven wonders of the world. It was built upon a rock, having a regular base cut on the outside as so many steps, and decreasing gradually quite to the summit. The stones of which it was formed, were of a prodigious size, the least of them being thirty feet square; they were wrought with surprising art, and covered with animals and other symbolical devices, called hieroglyphics. According to several ancient authors, each side was eight hundred feet

chral monuments of the sovereigns. The Egyptians believed that death did not separate the soul from the body, and hence their extreme care to preserve the body entire, by embalming, concealing it in caves and catacombs, and guarding it by such stupendous structures. [Much of the mystery connected with these gigantic relics of antiquity, has been dispelled by the assiduous exertions of modern travellers, among whom the names of our countrymen, Sir J. Gardner Wilkinson, Bruce, and Salt, the promoter of the curious discoveries of Belzoni, stand pre-eminent.]

The remains of art in Egypt, though venerable for their great antiquity, are extremely deficient in beauty and elegance. The Egyptians were ignorant of the construction of an arch.* The remains of painting and sculpture evince but a slender proficiency in those arts. Their use of symbols and hieroglyphics, is too well known to be insisted upon. They appear not only to have taken the lead in such kinds of allegorical painting, but to have surpassed most other nations in the obscurity and mysticism of their fictions.

5. The Egyptians possessed considerable knowledge of geometry, mechanics, and astronomy. They had divided the zodiac into twelve signs; they calculated eclipses, and seem to have had an idea of the motion of the earth.

6. The morality taught by the priests was pure and refined, but it had little influence on the manners of the people.

7. So likewise the theology and secret doctrines of the priest were rational and sublime; but the worship of the people was debased by the most absurd and contemptible superstition.† We know, upon the authority of the sacred

broad, and as many high. The summit of the pyramid, which to those who viewed it from below seemed a point, was a fine platform, sixteen or eighteen feet long. Herodotus informs us that 100,000 men were constantly employed about this work during thirty years. Ten complete years were spent in hewing out the stones, either in Arabia or Ethiopia, and in conveying them to Egypt, and twenty years more in building this immense edifice, the inside of which contained numberless rooms and apartments.—Ed.

* Recent discoveries since the death of Tytler, have satisfactorily proved that the Egyptians were not ignorant of the construction of an arch. Sir J. Gardner Wilkinson affirms, that the Egyptians were in possession of this architectural knowledge so far back as 1540 B.C.—Ed.

† The ancient Egyptians were great idolaters. In their superstitious extravagances, they accorded divine honours to men, beasts, birds, and even to some vegetables. The deities universally worshipped throughout Egypt, were Osiris and Isis, which are supposed to be the sun and moon. The Egyptians also paid especial reverence to the bull Apis, called Epa-

writings, how addicted they were to magic and enchantments, though the grounds and extent of their operations have constantly eluded the inquiries and researches of the learned. They appear to have been a combination of the mysteries and delusions of astrology and demonology; but by what arts or influence they managed to impose on the senses of mankind must for ever remain in obscurity.

8. Notwithstanding the early civilization and the great attainments of this people, their national character was extremely low and despicable among the contemporary nations of antiquity. The reason of this is, they were a people who chose to sequestrate themselves from the rest of mankind; they were not known to other nations by their conquests; they had little connexion with them by commerce; and they had an antipathy to the persons and manners of strangers.

9. There were likewise many circumstances of their own manners which tended to degrade them in the opinion of other nations. All professions were hereditary in Egypt, and the rank of each was scrupulously settled. The objects of religious worship were different in different parts of the kingdom; a fertile source of division and controversy. Their particular superstitions were of the most absurd and debasing nature, and the manners of the people were extremely loose and profligate.

IV.—*Of the Phœnicians.*

1. The Phœnicians were among the most early civilized nations of the East.* The fragments of Sanchoniáthion

thus by the Greeks, dedicated to Osiris at Memphis, and to Mnevis, a simular bull at Heliopolis; besides which every city had its particular object of superstitious idolatry, and whilst a people worshipped one species of animals as gods, their neighbours held the same animal gods in abomination; thus, the wolf, the hawk, the dog, the cat, the goat, the monkey, the stork, the crocodile, &c., were all objects of idolatrous worship in Egypt. It was death for any one to kill one of these animals, and he who dared to treat them with irreverence, met with severe punishment. Diodorus relates an incident of which he himself was an eye witness when in Egypt. A Roman having inadvertently and without design killed a cat, the exasperated populace dragged him from his house, and neither the authority of the king, nor the terror of the Roman name, could rescue the unfortunate criminal. The same historian assures us, that such was the reverence which the Egyptians had for those animal deities, that in an extreme famine, they chose to eat one another rather than feed upon their imagined gods.—Ed.

* The cities of the Phœnicians are supposed to have been independent states, of which Sidon and Tyre, were the chief. Tyre, which is said to

[which have been preserved by Eusebius], are the most ancient monuments of writing after the books of Moses. Sanchoniathon was contemporary with Joshua, about 1440 B.C. and 500 before the cities of Attica were united by Theseus.

2. The Phœnicians (the Canaanites of Scripture), were a commercial people in the days of Abraham.—In the time of the Hebrew judges, they had begun to colonize.—Their first settlements were Cyprus and Rhodes; thence they passed into Greece, Sicily, Sardinia, and Spain, and formed establishments likewise, not only on the northern, but even on the western coast of Africa.—The Sidonians carried on an extensive commerce at the time of the Trojan war.

V.—*The History of Greece.*

1. Greece being indebted for the first rudiments of civilization to the Egyptians and Phœnicians, its history is properly introduced by an account of those more ancient nations.

2. The early antiquities of this country are disguised by fable [the Grecian traditions ascending about four centuries above the Trojan war]; but from the time when it becomes important it has been treated of by eminent writers.

3. The ancient inhabitants of Greece, the Pelasgi, Hiantes, Leleges, were extremely barbarous; but a dawning of civilization arose under the Titans, a Phœnician or Egyptian colony.—The Titans gave the Greeks the first ideas of religion, and introduced the worship of their own gods, Saturn, Jupiter, Ceres, &c. Succeeding ages confounded those Titans themselves with the gods, and hence sprung numberless fables.

4. Inachus, the last of the Titans, founded the kingdom of Argos, 1856 B.C.; and Egialeus, one of his sons, the kingdom of Sicyon; though, if we might trust to

have been founded by Agenor, about 1225 B.C., and colonized from Sidon, appears to have rapidly risen to such greatness, as soon to have become more powerful than its parent state. The inhabitants of these cities were industrious, skilful, and enterprising; we are indebted to them for the first attempts at commercial navigation, for the invention of writing, and for the discovery of the art of making glass. Homer has celebrated the Sidonians as a people skilled in the arts of embroidery, and working in silver; and from the earliest antiquity, the ancients have lauded the Tyrian dyes for their superiority.—E.D.

some of the earlier records of Sicyon, it would appear to have been founded more than two centuries before Argos. Its modern name of *Basilico* has, indeed, been considered by some grave writers, as a standing proof, and memorial of its being the most ancient *kingdom* of Greece; but we think without sufficient foundation.

5. In the following century happened the deluge of Ogyges, B.C. 1796.—Then followed a period of barbarism for above two hundred years.

6. Cecrops, the leader of another colony from Egypt, landed in Attica B.C. 1582, and connecting himself with the last king, succeeded on his death to the sovereignty. He built twelve cities, Athens amongst others, and was eminent both as a lawgiver and politician.

7. The Grecian history derives some authenticity at this period from the chronicles of Paros, preserved among the Arundelian marbles at Oxford, [on which are chronicled the most remarkable events in the history of Greece, from the time of Cecrops, B.C. 1582, down to the age of Alexander the Great, B.C. 354.] The authority of this chronicle has been questioned of late, and many arguments adduced presumptive of its being a forgery; but on a review of the whole controversy, we judge the arguments for its authenticity greatly to preponderate.

8. Cranäus succeeded Cecrops, in whose time happened two remarkable events recorded in the chronicle of Paros; the judgment of the Areopagus between Mars and Neptune, two princes of Thessaly; and the deluge of Deucalion [B.C. 1529.] The court of Areopagus, at Athens, was instituted by Cecrops. The number of its judges varied at different periods from nine to fifty-one. The deluge of Deucalion, magnified and disguised by the poets, was only a partial inundation confined to *Thessaly*, as described by Herodotus, book vii.

9. Amphietyon, the contemporary of Cranäus, if the founder of the Amphietyonic council* [B.C. 1521], must have possessed extensive views of policy. This council,

* The Amphietyons were an assembly composed of deputies from the different states of Greece. Each state sent two deputies, one to examine into what related to ceremonies of religion, the other to decide disputes betwixt individuals. Their general residence was at Delphi, and they determined disputes betwixt the different states of Greece. Before they proceeded to business, they sacrificed an ox cut into small pieces. Their decisions were sacred and without appeal; they met twice in the year, in spring and autumn; in spring at Delphi, in autumn at Thermopylae.—ED.

from a league of twelve cities, became a representative assembly of the states of Greece, and had the most admirable political effects in uniting the nation, and giving it a common interest.

10. Cadmus, about B.C. 1519, introduced alphabetic writing into Greece from Phœnicia. The alphabet then had only sixteen letters; and the mode of writing (termed *Boustrophédon*) was alternately from left to right, and right to left.—From this period, supposed to be coincident with the settlement of the Israelites under Joshua, in the land of Canaan, whereby many of the Phœnicians were probably driven to seek refuge in other countries, the Greeks made rapid advances in civilization. Cadmus is reported to have taught them the use of the vine, and all the processes of metallurgy.

VI.—*Reflections on the first and rudest periods of the Grecian History.*

1. The country of Greece presents a large irregular peninsula, intersected by many chains of mountains, separating its different districts, and opposing natural impediments to general intercourse, and therefore to rapid civilization.—The extreme barbarism of the Pelasgi, who are said to have been cannibals, and ignorant of the use of fire, has its parallel in modern barbarous nations.—There were many circumstances that retarded the progress of the Greeks to refinement. The introduction of a national religion was best fitted to remove these obstacles. Receiving this new system of theology from strangers, and entertaining at first very confused ideas of it, they would naturally blend its doctrines and worship with the notions of religion which they formerly possessed; and hence we observe only partial coincidences of the Grecian with the Egyptian and Phœnician mythologies.—It has been a vain and preposterous labour of modern mythological writers, to attempt to trace all the fables of antiquity, and the various systems of pagan theology, up to one common source.—The absurdity of this is best shown, by comparing the different and most contradictory solutions of the same fable given by different mythologists, as, for example, by Lord Bacon and other eminent men. Some authors, with much indirection, have attempted to deduce all the Pagan mythologies from the Holy Scriptures. Such re-

searches are not only unprofitable, but positively mischievous.

2. Superstition, in the early periods, was a predominant characteristic of the Greeks.—To this age, and to this character of the people, we refer the origin of the Grecian oracles, and the institution of the public games in honour of the gods.

The desire of penetrating into futurity, and the superstition common to rude nations, gave rise to the oracles of Delphi, Dodónā, &c.

The resort of strangers to these oracles on particular occasions, led to the celebration of a festival, and to public games.

The four solemn games of the Greeks, particularly termed *hieroi*, were the Olympic, the Pythian, the Nemean, and the Isthmian. They consisted principally in contests of skill in all the athletic exercises, and the prizes were chiefly honorary marks of distinction.—Archbishop Potter, in his *Archæologia Græca*, fully details their particular nature.—These games had excellent political effects, in promoting national union, in diffusing the love of glory, and training the youth to martial exercises. They cherished at once a heroical and a superstitious spirit, which led to the formation of extraordinary and hazardous enterprises.

VII.—*Early period of the Grecian History.—The Argonautic Expedition.—Wars of Thebes and of Troy.*

1. The history of Greece, for a period of three hundred years preceding the Trojan war, is intermixed with fables; but contains, at the same time, many facts entitled to credit as authentic. Erectheus, or Erichonius, either a Greek who had visited Egypt, or the leader of a new Egyptian colony, cultivated the plains of Eleusis, and instituted the Eleusinian mysteries,* in imitation of the Egyptian games of Isis. These mysteries were of a

* The Eleusinian festivals were celebrated in the autumn of every fifth year. These festivals were sacred to Ceres and Proserpine, and everything connected with them contained a mystery, Ceres herself being only known by the name of *achtheia* from the sorrow and grief (*achthos*), which she suffered for the loss of her daughter. This mysterious secret was so solemnly observed and enjoined by all the votaries of the goddess, that if any one ever appeared at the celebration either intentionally or through ignorance without proper introduction, he was immediately punished with death.—ED.

religious and moral nature, conveying the doctrines of the unity of God, the immortality of the soul, and a future state of reward and punishment. Cicero speaks of them with high encomium. But the ceremonies connected with them were childish and ridiculous.

2. Theseus laid the foundation of the grandeur of Attica, by uniting its twelve cities, [which before were governed separately by their own magistrates and laws], and giving them a common constitution, 1257 B.C.

3. The first great enterprise of the Greeks was the Argonautic expedition to Colchis, 1263 B.C. (Usher), and 937 B.C. (Sir I. Newton), [for which purpose an armament was fitted out, consisting of a number of ships, of which Argo the largest, is said to have been equal in size to that of a modern vessel of about 200 tons burden.] This is supposed to have been both a military and a mercantile adventure, and was singularly bold for the times in which it was undertaken. The object was to open the commerce of the Euxine sea, and to secure some establishments on its coasts. The astronomer Chiron, directed the plan of the voyage, and formed, for the use of the mariners, a scheme of the constellations, fixing with accuracy the solstitial and equinoctial points. Sir Isaac Newton has founded his emendation of the ancient chronology on a calculation of the regular precession of the equinoxes from this period to the present, as well as on an estimate of the medium length of human generations.

4. The state of the military art at this time in Greece may be estimated from an account of the sieges of Thebes and of Troy.

In these enterprises the arts of attack and defence were very rude and imperfect. The siege was entirely of the nature of blockade, and therefore necessarily of long duration. A dispute for the divided sovereignty of Thebes between the brothers Eteocles and Polynices, gave rise to the war, which was terminated by single combat, in which both were killed.

5. The sons of the commanders slain in this war renewed the quarrel of their fathers, and occasioned the war of the *Epigonoï*, a subject on which Homer is said to have written a poem, now lost, equal to the Iliad and Odyssey.

6. The detail of the war of Troy rests chiefly on the authority of Homer, and ought not, in spite of modern

scepticism, to be refused in its principal facts the credit of a true history. After a blockade of ten years, Troy was taken, either by storm or surprise, 1184 B.C., and, being set on fire in the night, was burnt to the ground: not a vestige of its ruins existing at the present day. The empire fell from that moment. The Greeks settled a colony near the spot; and the rest of the kingdom was occupied by the Lydians.

7. Military expeditions at this time were carried on only in the spring and summer. In a tedious siege, the winter was a season of armistice. The science of military tactics was then utterly unknown, every battle being a multitude of single combats. The soldier had no pay but his share of the booty, divided by the chiefs. The weapons of war were the sword, the bow, the javelin, the club, the hatchet, and the sling. A helmet of brass, an enormous shield, a cuirass, and buskins, were the weapons of defence,

VIII.—*Establishment of the Greek Colonies.*

1. About eighty years after the taking of Troy began the war of the Heraclidæ. Hercules, the son of Amphitryon, sovereign of Mycenæ, was banished from his country with all his family, while the crown was possessed by an usurper. His descendants, after the period of a century, returned to Peloponnesus, and subduing all their enemies, took possession of the states of Mycenæ, Argos, and Lacedæmon.

2. A long period of civil war and bloodshed succeeded, and Greece, divided among a number of petty tyrants, suffered equally the miseries of oppression and anarchy.

Codrus, king of Athens, showed a singular example of patriotism, in devoting himself to death for his country;* yet the Athenians weary of monarchy, determined to make the experiment of a popular constitution. Medon, the [eldest] son of Codrus, was elected chief magistrate,

* A superstitious rumour prevailed among the Dorians, who were then besieging Athens, that they should finally remain conquerors, provided they abstained from injuring the person of the Athenian king. Codrus hearing the report, was inspired with the spirit of heroism congenial to his family, disguising himself in the habit of a peasant, he proceeded to the quarters of the enemy insulted a Dorian soldier, a combat ensued, Codrus fell, his body was recognized, and the superstitious Dorians now despairing of success, suspended their hostilities.

with the title of Archon. This is the commencement of the Athenian republic, about 1068 B.C.

3. It was at this time that the Greeks began to colonize. The oppression which they suffered at home forced many of them to abandon their country, and seek refuge in other lands. A large body of Æolians from Peloponnésus founded twelve cities in the Lesser Asia, of which Smyrna was the most considerable. A troop of [Athenian and] Ionian exiles, [headed by Neleus and Androclus, sons of Codrus, who were probably dissatisfied with the general conduct of their fellow citizens], built Ephesus, Colophon, Clazomene, and other towns; giving to their new settlements the name of their native country Ionia. The Dorians sent off colonies to Italy and Sicily, founding in the former Tarentum and Lócric, and in the latter Syracuse and Agrigentum. The mother country considered its colonies as emancipated children. These speedily attained to eminence and splendour, rivalling and surpassing their parent states: and the example of their prosperity, which was attributed to the freedom of their governments, incited the states of Greece, oppressed by a number of petty despots, to put an end to the regal government, and try the experiment of a popular constitution. Athens and Thebes gave the first examples, which were soon followed by all the rest.

4. These infant republics demanded new laws: and it was necessary that some enlightened citizens should arise, who had discernment to perceive what system of legislation was most adapted to the character of his native state; who had abilities to compile such a system, and sufficient authority with his countrymen to recommend and enforce it. Such men were the Spartan Lycurgus and the Athenian Solon.

IX.—*The Republic of Sparta.*

1. The origin of this political system has given rise to much ingenious disquisition among the moderns, and affords a remarkable instance of the passion for systematizing. It is a prevailing propensity with modern philosophers, to reduce every thing to general principles. Man, say they, is always the same animal, and, when placed in similar situations, will always exhibit a similar appearance. His manners, his improvements, the government and laws under which he lives, arise necessarily from the

situation in which we find him ; and all is the result of a few general laws of nature which operate universally on the human species. But in the ardour of this passion for generalizing, these philosophers often forget, that it is the knowledge of facts which can alone lead to the discovery of general laws : a knowledge not limited to the history of a single age or nation, but extended to that of the whole species in every age and climate. Antecedently to such knowledge, all historical system is mere romance.

2. Of this nature is a late theory of the constitution of Sparta, first started by Mr. Brown in his *Essay on Civil Liberty* ; and from him adopted by later writers. It thus accounts for the origin of the Spartan constitution.* “The army of the Heraclidæ, when they came to recover the dominion of their ancestors, was composed of Dorians from Thessaly, the most barbarous of all the Greek tribes. The Achæans, the ancient inhabitants of Laconia, were compelled to seek new habitations, while the barbarians of Thessaly took possession of their country. Of all the nations which are the subject of historical record, this people bore the nearest resemblance to the rude Americans. An American tribe where a chief presides, where the council of the aged deliberate, and the assembly of the people gives their voice, is on the eve of such a political establishment as the Spartan constitution.” The Dorians or Thessalians settled in Lacedæmon manifested, it is said, the same manners with all other nations in a barbarous state. Lycurgus did no more than arrest them in that state, by forming their usages into laws. He checked them at once in the first stage of their improvement. “He put forth a bold hand to that spring which is in society, and stopt its motion.”

3. This theory, however ingenious, is confuted by facts. All ancient authors agree, that Lycurgus operated a total change on the Spartan manners, and on the constitution of his country ; while the moderns have discovered that he made no change on either. The most striking features of the manners and constitution of Sparta, have not the smallest resemblance to those of any rude nations with which we are acquainted. The communion of slaves and of many other species of property, the right of the state in the children of all the citizens, their common education,

* Logan's *Philosophy of History*, &c.

the public tables, the equal division of lands, the oath of government between the kings and people, have no parallel in the history of any barbarous nations.

4. The real history of Sparta and its constitution is therefore not to be found in modern theory, but in the writings of the Greek historians ; and these are our sole authorities worthy of credit.

After the return of the Heraclidæ, Sparta was divided between the two sons of Aristodémus, Eurysthenes, and Procles, who jointly reigned ; and this double monarchy, transmitted to the descendants of each, continued in the separate branches for nearly nine hundred years. A radical principle of disunion and consequent anarchy, made the want of constitutional laws be severely felt. Lycurgus, brother of Polydectes, one of the kings of Sparta, a man distinguished alike by his abilities and virtues, was invested, by the concurring voice of the sovereigns and people, with the important duty of reforming and new-modelling the constitution of his country, 884 B.C.

5. Lycurgus instituted a senate, elective, of twenty-eight members, whose office was to preserve a just balance between the power of the kings and that of the people. Nothing could come before the assembly of the people which had not received the previous consent of the senate ; and, on the other hand, no judgment of the senate was effectual without the sanction of the people. The kings presided in the senate : they were the generals of the republic ; but they could plan no enterprise without the consent of a council of the citizens.

6. Lycurgus bent his attention most particularly to the regulation of manners ; and one great principle pervaded his whole system ;—*Luxury is the bane of society.*

He divided the territory of the republic into thirty-nine thousand equal portions, among the whole of its free citizens.

He substituted iron money for gold and silver, prohibited the practice of commerce, abolished all useless arts, and allowed even those necessary to life to be practised only by the slaves.

The whole of the citizens made their principal repast at the public tables. The meals were coarse and parsimonious ; the conversation was fitted to improve the youth in virtue, and cultivate the patriotic spirit.

The Spartan education rejected all embellishments of

the understanding. It nourished only the severer virtues. It taught the duties of religion, obedience to the laws, respect for parents, reverence for old age, inflexible honour, undaunted courage, contempt of danger and of death:—above all, the love of glory* and of their country.

7. But the general excellence of the institutions of Lycurgus was impaired by many blemishes. The manners of the Lacedæmonian women were shamefully loose. They frequented the baths, and fought naked in the Palæstra promiscuously with the men. Theft was a part of Spartan education. The youth were taught to subdue the feelings of humanity; the slaves were treated with the most barbarous rigour, and often massacred for sport. The institutions of Lycurgus had no other end than to form a nation of soldiers.

8. A faulty part of the constitution of Sparta was the office of the Ephori; magistrates elected by the people, whose power, though in some respects subordinate, was in others paramount to that of the kings and senate.

X.—*The Republic of Athens.*

1. On the abolition of the regal office at Athens, the change of the constitution was more nominal than real. The archonship was, during three centuries, a perpetual and hereditary magistracy. In 754 B.C. this office became decennial. In 648 B.C. the archons were annually elected, and were nine in number, with equal authority. Under all these changes the state was convulsed, and the condition of the people miserable.

2. Draco, elevated to the archonship 624 B.C., projected a reform in the constitution of his country, and thought to repress disorders by the extreme severity of

* In the knowledge and practice of war, the Lacedæmonians are said to have far excelled all Greeks and barbarians. Courage, the first quality of a soldier, was enlivened by every motive that can operate most powerfully on the mind, while cowardice was branded as the most odious and destructive of crimes, on the principle that it tended not like many other vices, merely to the hurt of individuals, but to the servitude and ruin of the community. In the day of battle, the Spartans assumed an unusual gaiety of aspect, and displayed in their dress and ornaments, more than their wonted splendour. Their long hair was arranged in simple elegance, their scarlet uniforms and brazen armour, diffused bright gleams around them. As they approached the enemy, the king sacrificed anew, the music struck up, and the soldiers advanced with a slow and steady pace, and with a cheerful but deliberate countenance to what they were taught to regard as the noblest employment of man.—ED.

penal laws. But his talents were unequal to the task he had undertaken.

3. Sólon, an illustrious Athenian, of the race of Codrus, attained the dignity of archon 594 B.C., and was entrusted with the care of framing for his country a new form of government, and a new system of laws. He possessed extensive knowledge, but wanted that intrepidity of mind which is necessary to the character of a great statesman. His disposition was mild and temporising; and, without attempting to reform the manners of his countrymen, he accommodated his system to their prevailing habits and passions.

4. The people claimed the sovereign power, and they received it: the rich demanded offices and dignities: the system of Sólon accommodated them to the utmost of their wishes. He divided the citizens into four classes, according to the measure of their wealth. To the three first, the richer citizens, belonged all the offices of the commonwealth. The fourth, the poorer class, more numerous than all the other three, had an equal right of suffrage with them in the public assembly, where all laws were framed, and measures of state decreed. Consequently the weight of the latter decided every question.

5. To regulate in some degree the proceedings of those assemblies, and balance the weight of the popular interest, Sólon instituted a senate of four hundred members (afterwards enlarged to five hundred and six hundred), with whom it was necessary that every measure should originate before it became the subject of discussion in the assembly of the people.

6. To the court of Areopagus he committed the guardianship of the laws, and the power of enforcing them, with the supreme administration of justice. To this tribunal belonged likewise the custody of the treasures of the state, the care of religion, and a tutorial power over all the youth of the republic. The number of its judges was various at different periods, and the most immaculate purity of character was essential to that high office.

7. The authority of the senate and Areopagus imposed some check on the popular assemblies; but as these possessed the ultimate right of decision, it was always in the power of ambitious demagogues to sway them to the worst of purposes. Continual factions divided the people, and corruption pervaded every department of the state.

The public measures, the result of the interested schemes of individuals, were often equally absurd as they were profligate. Athens often saw her best patriots, the wisest and most virtuous of her citizens, shamefully sacrificed to the most depraved and most abandoned.

8. The particular laws of the Athenian state are more deserving of encomium than its form of government. The laws relating to debtors were mild and equitable, as were those which regulated the treatment of slaves. But the vassalage of women, or their absolute subjection to the control of their nearest relations, approached too near to a state of servitude. The proposer of a law, found on experience impolitic, was liable to punishment; an enactment apparently rigorous, but probably necessary in a popular government.

9. One most iniquitous and absurd peculiarity of the Athenian, and some other governments of Greece, was the practice of the *Ostracism*, a ballot of all the citizens, in which each wrote down the name of the person in his opinion most obnoxious to censure; and he who was thus marked out by the greatest number of voices, though unimpeached of any crime, was banished for ten years from his country. This barbarous and disgraceful institution, ever capable of the grossest abuse, and generally subservient to the worst of purposes, has stained the character of Athens with many flagrant instances of public ingratitude.

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10. The manners of the Athenians formed the most striking contrast to those of the Lacedæmonians. The arts were, at Athens, in the highest esteem; the Lacedæmonians despised the arts, and all who cultivated them. At Athens, peace was the natural state of the republic, and the refined enjoyment of life the aim of all its subjects; Sparta was entirely a military establishment: her subjects, when unengaged in war, were totally unoccupied. Luxury was the character of the Athenian, as frugality of the Spartan. They were equally jealous of their liberty, and equally brave in war. The courage of the Spartan sprung from [a fostered hardihood and] constitutional ferocity, that of the Athenian from the principle of honour.

11. The Spartan government had acquired solidity, while all the rest of Greece was torn by domestic dissensions. Athens, a prey to faction and civil disorder, sur-

rendered her liberties to Pisistratus, 550 B.C. : who, after various turns of fortune, established himself firmly in the sovereignty, exercised a splendid and munificent dominion, completely gained the affections of the people, and transmitted a peaceable crown to his son Hippias and Hipparchus.

12. Hermódias and Aristogiton undertook to restore the democracy ; and succeeded in the attempt. Hipparchus was put to death ; and Hippias, dethroned, solicited a foreign aid to replace him in the sovereignty. Darius, the son of Hystaspes, meditated at this time the conquest of Greece. Hippias took advantage of the views of an enemy against his native country, and Greece was now involved in a war with Persia.

XI.—Of the state of the Persian Empire, and its History down to the War with Greece.

1. The first empire of the Assyrians ended under Sardanápálus,* and three monarchies arose from its ruins, Nineveh, Babylon, and the kingdom of the Medes.

2. The history of Babylon and of Nineveh is very imperfectly known. The Medes, hitherto independent tribes, were united under a monarchy by Dejoces, [who made Ecbatana his capital, 700 B.C.] His son Phraórtēs conquered Persia, but was himself vanquished by Nabuchodonósor I., king of Assyria, and put to death. Nabuchodonósor II. led the Jews into captivity, took Jerusalem

* Sardanapalus, who is said to be the son of Pul, the first King of Assyria mentioned in Scripture (2 Kings xix. 25.) was a weak effeminate prince. He placed all his happiness and glory in the possession of immense treasures, in feasting, and rioting, and indulging himself in all the most infamous and criminal pleasures. Rollin informs us that Arbaces, governor of Media, became so enraged with the effeminacy of Sardanapalus that, aided by Belesis, governor of Babylon, and several others, he formed a conspiracy against him. On the first hearing of this result, the King shut himself up in his palace, and thought himself secure ; but when he saw that the Tigris, by a violent inundation, had thrown down a part of the city wall, and opened a passage to the enemy, he imagined himself lost, whereupon he resolved to die in such a manner, as, according to his opinion, should cover the infamy of his scandalous and effeminate life. He ordered a pile of wood to be made in his palace, and setting fire to it, burnt himself, his eunuchs, his women, and his treasures. Thus died this ignoble Prince, whose only virtue consisted in destroying the power and greatness of the empire over which he reigned. He ordered two verses to be put upon his tomb when he died, which said that he carried away with him all that he had eaten, and all the pleasures that he had enjoyed, but left all the rest behind ; an epitaph, says Aristotle, fit for a hog.—ED.

and Tyre, and subdued Egypt. [Phraortes was succeeded by Cyaxares 625 B.C., and by Astyages, 585 B.C.; in whose time, Cyrus became master of Media, and the empire was transferred to the Persians.]

3. The history of Cyrus is involved in great uncertainty; nor is it possible to reconcile or apply to one man the different accounts given of him by Herodotus, Ctésias, and Xenophon. Succeeding his father Cambyses in the throne of Persia, and his uncle Cyaxares in the sovereignty of the Medes, he united these empires, vanquished the Babylonians and Lydians, subjected the greatest part of the lesser Asia, and made himself master of Syria and Arabia.

4. He was succeeded by his son Cambyses, distinguished only as a tyrant and a madman.

5. After the death of Cambyses, Darius, the son of Hystaspes, was elected sovereign of Persia, a prince of great enterprise and ambition. Unfortunate in a rash expedition against the Scythians, he projected and achieved the conquest of India. Inflated with success, he now meditated an invasion of Greece, and cordially entered into the views of Hippias, who sought, by his means, to regain the sovereignty of Athens.

6. *Government, Manners, Laws, &c. of the Ancient Persians*—*The government of Persia was an absolute monarchy; the will of the sovereign being subject to no control, and his person revered as sacred; yet the education bestowed by those monarchs on their children was calculated to inspire every valuable quality of a sovereign.

The ancient Persians in general bestowed the utmost attention on the education of youth. Children at the age of five were committed to the care of the Magi, for the improvement of their mind and morals. They were trained at the same time to every manly exercise. The sacred books of the *Zendavesta* promised to every worthy parent the imputed merit and reward of all the good actions of his children.

7. Luxurious as they were in after times, the early Persians were distinguished for their temperance, bravery, and virtuous simplicity of manners. They were all

* The Persians originally inhabited a small province on the north of the Persian Gulf. They are said to be the *Elamites* of Scripture.—ED.

trained to the use of arms, and displayed great intrepidity in war. The custom of the women following their armies to the field, erroneously attributed to effeminacy, was a remnant of barbarous manners.

8. The kingdom of Persia was divided into several provinces, each under a governor or satrap, who was accountable to the sovereign for the whole of his conduct. The prince, at stated times, visited his provinces in person, correcting all abuses, easing the burdens of the oppressed, and encouraging agriculture and the practice of the useful arts. The laws of Persia were mild and equitable; and the utmost purity was observed in the administration of justice.

9. The religion of the ancient Persians is of great antiquity. It is conjectured that there were two Zoroasters; the first, the founder of this ancient religion, and of whom are recorded miracles and prophecies; the second, a reformer of that religion, contemporary with Darius the son of Hystaspes. The *Zendavesta*, or sacred book, compiled by the former, was improved and purified by the latter. It has been lately translated into French by M. Anquetil, and appears to contain, amidst a mass of absurdity, some sublime truths, and excellent precepts of morality. The theology of the *Zendavesta* is founded on the doctrine of two opposite principles, a good and an evil, Ormusd and Ahriman, eternal beings, who divide between them the government of the universe, and whose warfare must endure till the end of twelve thousand years, when the good will finally prevail over the evil. A separation will ensue of the votaries of each: the just shall be admitted to the immediate enjoyment of paradise; the wicked, after a limited purification by fire, shall ultimately be allowed to partake of the blessings of eternity. Ormusd is to be adored through the medium of his greatest works, the sun, moon, and stars. The fire, the symbol of the sun, the air, the earth, the water, have their subordinate worship.

The morality of the *Zendavesta* is best known from its abridgment—the *Sadder*, compiled about three centuries ago by the modern Guebres. It inculcates a chastened species of Epicurism; allowing a free indulgence of the passions, while consistent with the welfare of society. It prohibits equally intemperance and ascetic mortification. It recommends, as precepts of religion, the cultivation of

the earth, the planting of fruit-trees, the destruction of noxious animals, the bringing water to a barren land.

10. Such were the ancient Persians. But their character had undergone a great change before the period of the war with Greece. At this time they were a degenerate and corrupted people. Athens had recently thrown off the yoke of the Pisistratidæ, and highly valued her new liberty. Sparta, in the ardour of patriotism, forgot all jealousy of her rival state, and cordially united in the defence of their common country. The Persians, in this contest, had no other advantage than that of numbers, an unequal match for superior heroism and military skill.

XII.—*The War between Greece and Persia.*

1. The ambition of Darius, the son of Hystaspes, heightened by the passion of revenge, gave rise to the project of that monarch for the invasion of Greece. The Athenians had aided the people of Ionia in an attempt to throw off the yoke of Persia, and burnt and ravaged Sardis, the capital of Lydia. Darius speedily reduced the Ionians to submission, and then turned his arms against the Greeks, the [Athenian] exile Hippias eagerly prompting the expedition.

2. After an insolent demand of submission, which the Greeks scornfully refused, Darius began a hostile attack both by sea and land. The first Persian fleet was wrecked in doubling the promontory of Athos; [three hundred vessels were dashed against the rocks, and 20,000 men perished in the waves], a second, of 600 sail, ravaged the Grecian islands; while an immense army, landing in Eubœa, poured down with impetuosity on Attica. The Athenians met them on the plain of Marathon, and, headed by Miltiades, defeated them with prodigious slaughter, 490 B.C. [The Persian army commanded by Datis, consisted of 100,000 foot, and 10,000 horse, that of the Athenians, amounted to about 10,000 men, headed by ten generals, of whom Miltiades was the chief.] The loss of the Persians in this battle, was 6,300, that of the Athenians 190.

3. The merit of Miltiades, signally displayed in this great battle, was repaid by his country with the most shocking ingratitude. Accused of treason for an unsuccessful attack on the isle of Paros, his sentence of death

was commuted into a fine of fifty talents ; which being unable to pay, he was thrown into prison, and there died of his wounds.

4. The glory* of ungrateful Athens was yet nobly sustained in the Persian war by Themistocles and Aristides. Darius dying, was succeeded by his son Xerxes, the heir of his father's ambition, but not of his abilities. He armed, as is said, five millions of men for the conquest of Greece ; twelve hundred ships of war, and three thousand ships of burden. Landing in Thessaly, he proceeded, by rapid marches, to Thermopylæ, a narrow defile on the *Sinus Maliacus*, [the bay of Malia.] The Athenians and Spartans, aided only by the Thespians, Platæans, Æginètes, [and Corinthians], determined to withstand the invader. Leonidas, King of Sparta, was chosen to defend this important pass with six thousand men. Xerxes, after a weak attempt to corrupt him, imperiously summoned him to lay down his arms. *Let him come*, said Leonidas, *and take them*. For two days the Persians in vain strove to force their way, and were repeatedly repulsed with great slaughter. An unguarded track being at length discovered, [by the treachery of Ephialtes, a Trachinian deserter], the defence of the pass became a fruitless attempt on the part of the Greeks. Leonidas, foreseeing certain destruction, commanded all to retire but three hundred of his countrymen. His motive was to give the Persians a just idea of the spirit of that foe whom they had to encounter. He, with his brave Spartans, were all cut off to a man,* 480 B.C. A monument, erected on the spot, bore this noble inscription, written by Simonides : *O stranger ! tell it at Lacedæmon, that we died here in obedience to her laws*.

5. The Persians poured down upon Attica. The inhabitants of Athens, after conveying their women and children to the islands for security, betook themselves to their fleet, abandoning the city, which the Persians pillaged and burnt. The fleet of the Greeks, consisting of three hundred and eighty sail, was attacked in the straits of Salamis, by that of the Persians, amounting to twelve hundred ships. Xerxes himself beheld from an eminence

* Herodotus informs us, that these brave patriots were all interred in the place where they fell. Upon their tomb was this inscription :

" *Here once from Pelops' sea-girt region brought
Four thousand men three hostile millions fought.*"—ED.

on the coast, the total discomfiture of his squadron. He then fled with precipitation across the Hellespont. A second overthrow awaited his army by land: for Mardónius, at the head of three hundred thousand Persians, was totally defeated at Plataea by the combined army of the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, 379 B.C. [250,000 of the Persian army perished on this occasion.] On the same day the Greeks engaged and destroyed the remains of the Persian fleet at Mycale. From that day the ambitious schemes of Xerxes were at an end: and his inglorious life soon after terminated by assassination. He was succeeded in the throne of Persia, by his son Artaxerxes Longimanus, 464 B.C.

6. At this time the national character of the Greeks was at its highest elevation. The common danger had annihilated all partial jealousies between the states, and given them union as a nation. But with the cessation of danger those jealousies re-commenced. Sparta meanly opposed the rebuilding of deserted Athens. Athens, rising again into splendour, saw with pleasure, the depopulation of Sparta, by an earthquake, [which destroyed about 20,000 of her inhabitants], and hesitated to give her aid in that juncture of calamity against a rebellion of her slaves.

7. Cimon, the son of Miltiades, after expelling the Persians from Thrace, attacked and destroyed their fleet on the coast of Pamphylia, and landing his troops, gained a signal victory over their army the same day. Supplanted in the public favour by the arts of his rival Péricles, he suffered a temporary exile, to return only with higher popularity, and to signalize himself still more in the service of his ungrateful country. [With an armament of two hundred ships], he attacked and totally destroyed the Persian fleet of three hundred sail; and, landing in Cilicia, completed his triumph, by defeating three hundred thousand Persians under Megabyzes, 460 B.C. Artaxerxes now had the prudence to sue for peace, which was granted by the Greeks on terms most honourable to the nation. They stipulated for the freedom of all the Grecian cities of Asia, and that the fleets of Persia should not approach their coasts from the Euxine to the extreme boundary of Pamphylia. The last fifty years were the period of the highest glory of the Greeks; and they owed their prosperity entirely to their union. The

peace with Persia dissolving that connexion, brought back the jealousies between the predominant states, the intestine disorders of each, and the national weakness.

8. The martial and the patriotic spirit began visibly to decline in Athens. An acquaintance with Asia, and an importation of her wealth, introduced a relish for Asiatic manners and luxuries. With the Athenians, however, this luxurious spirit was under the guidance of taste and genius. It led to the cultivation of the finer arts; and the age of Pericles, though the national glory was in its wane, is the era of the highest internal splendour and magnificence of Greece.

XII.—*Age of Pericles.*

1. Republics, equally with monarchies, are generally regulated by a single will; only in the former there is a more frequent change of masters. Pericles ruled Athens with little less than arbitrary sway; and Athens pretended at this time to the command of Greece. She held the allied states in the most absolute subjection, and lavished their subsidies, bestowed for the national defence, in magnificent buildings, games, and festivals, for her own citizens. The tributary states loudly complained, but durst not call this domineering republic to account; and the war of Peloponnesus, dividing the nation into two great parties, bound the lesser cities to the strictest subordination on the predominant powers.

3. The state of Corinth had been included in the last treaty between Athens and Sparta. The Corinthians waging war with the people of Coreyra, an ancient colony of their own, both parties solicited the aid of Athens, who took part with the latter; a measure which the Corinthians complained of, not only as an infraction of the treaty with Sparta, but as a breach of a general rule of the national policy, that no foreign power should interfere in the disputes between a colony and its parent state. War was proclaimed on this ground between Athens and Lacedæmon, each supported by its respective allies. The detail of the war, which continued for twenty-eight years, with various and alternate success, is to be found in Thucydides. Pericles died before its termination; a splendid ornament to his country, but reproached as a corrupter of her manners, by fostering the spirit of luxury. Alcibiades ran a similar career, with equal talents, equal

ambition, and still less purity of moral principle. In the interval of a truce with Sparta, he inconsiderately projected the conquest of Sicily; and failing in the attempt, was, on his return to Athens, condemned to death for treason. He hesitated not to wreak his vengeance against his country, by selling his services, first to Sparta, and afterwards to Persia. Finally, he purchased his peace with his country, by betraying the power which protected him, and returned to Athens the idol of a populace as versatile as worthless.

3. A fatal defeat of the Athenian fleet at Ægos Potamos, by Lysander, reduced Athens to the last extremity; and the Lacedæmonians blockaded the city by land and sea. The war ended by the absolute submission of the Athenians, who agreed to demolish their port, to limit their fleet to twelve ships, and undertake for the future no military enterprise, but under the command of the Lacedæmonians, 405 B.C.

4. It is to the same Lysander, who terminated the Peloponnesian war so gloriously for Lacedæmon, that history ascribes the first great breach of the constitution of his country, by the introduction of gold into that republic. Lysander, after the reduction of Athens, abolished the popular government in that state, and substituted in its place thirty tyrants, whose power was absolute. The most eminent of the citizens fled from their country: but a band of patriots, headed by Thrasybulus, attacked, vanquished, and expelled the usurpers, and once more re-established the democracy.

5. One event which happened at this time reflected more disgrace on the Athenian name than their natural humiliation: this was the persecution and death of Socrates,* a philosopher who was himself the patron of every virtue which he taught. The sophists, whose futile

* Although the annals of ancient history abound with memoirs of wise and heroic minds, it must be allowed that the pagan world never produced any character so truly great and perfect as that of Socrates, either before or after his time. When we observe to what a height this paragon of heathen philosophy carries the sublimity of his sentiments, not only in respect to moral virtue, temperance, sobriety, patience in adversity, the contempt of poverty, and the forgiveness of wrongs, but what is far more considerable in regard to the Divinity, his unity, omnipotence, creation of the world, and providence in the government of it, the immortality of the soul, the reward of the good, and the punishment of the wicked. When we consider this train of sublime knowledge, we ask our reason, whether it is a pagan who thinks and speaks in this manner, and can scarce persuade ourselves that from so dark and obscure a cloud of paganism, should shine forth such living and glorious rays of light.—ED.

logic he derided and exposed, represented him as an enemy to the religion of his country, because, without regard to the popular superstitions, he led the mind to the knowledge of a Supreme Being, the Creator and Ruler of the Universe; and the belief of a future state of retribution. His defence he made himself with the manly fortitude of conscious innocence; but in vain: his judges were his personal enemies; and he was condemned to die by poison 397 B.C. (See sect. 23, 5;) [he drank the poisonous draught with a serenity of aspect which his friends, overwhelmed with deep grief and intense emotion, in vain strove to imitate.]

6. On the death of Darius Nothus, his eldest son, Artaxerxes Mnemon, succeeded to the empire of Persia. His younger brother Cyrus, formed the project of dethroning him; and, with the aid of thirteen thousand Greeks, engaged him near Babylon, but was defeated and slain: a just reward of his most culpable enterprise. The remainder of the Grecian army, to the amount of ten thousand, under the command of Xenophon, made a most amazing retreat, traversing a hostile country of sixteen hundred miles in extent, from Babylon to the banks of the Euxine. Xenophon has beautifully written the history of this expedition; but has painted the character of Cyrus in too flattering colours, and without the smallest censure of his criminal ambition.

7. The Greek cities of Asia had taken part with Cyrus. Sparta was engaged to defend her countrymen, and consequently was involved in a war with Persia. Had Athens added her strength, the Greeks might have once more defied the power of Asia; but jealousy kept the states divided, and even hostile to each other, and the gold of Artaxerxes excited a general league in Greece against Lacedæmon. Agesilaüs, King of Sparta, sustained for a considerable time the honour of his country, and won some important battles in Asia; but others were lost in Greece; and a naval defeat near Cnidos utterly destroyed the Lacedæmonian fleet: finally, to escape total destruction, the Spartans sued for peace, and obtained it, by the sacrifice to Persia of all the Asiatic colonies, 387 B.C. Artaxerxes further demanded, and obtained for his allies, the Athenians, the islands of Scyros, Lemnos, and Imbros: a disgraceful treaty, a mortifying picture of the humiliation of the Greeks.

XIV.—*The Republic of Thebes.*

1. While Athens and Sparta were thus visibly tending to decline, the Theban republic emerged from obscurity, and rose for a time to a degree of splendour eclipsing all its cotemporary states. The republic was divided by faction, one party supporting its ancient democracy, and the other aiming at the establishment of an oligarchy. The latter courted the aid of the Spartans, who embraced that occasion to take possession of the citadel. Four hundred of the exiled Thebans fled for protection to Athens; among these was Pelopidas, who planned and accomplished the deliverance of his country. Disguising himself and twelve of his friends as peasants, he entered Thebes in the evening, and joining a patriotic party of the citizens, they surprised the heads of the usurpation amid the tumult of a feast, and put them all to death. Epaminondas, the friend of Pelopidas, shared with him in the glory of this enterprise, and attacking, with the aid of five thousand Athenians, the Lacedæmonian garrison, drove them entirely out of the Theban territory.

2. A war necessarily ensued between Thebes and Sparta, in which the former had the aid of Athens. This, however, was but for a season. Thebes singly opposed the power of Sparta and the league of Greece; but Epaminondas and Pelopidas were her generals. The latter, amidst a career of glory, perished in an expedition against the tyrant of Phærea. Epaminondas, triumphant at Leuctra and Mantinœa, fell in that last engagement, and with him expired the glory of his country, 363 B.C. Athens and Sparta were humbled at the battle of Mantinœa; Thebes was victorious, but she was undone by the death of Epaminondas. All parties were tired of the war; and Artaxerxes, more powerful among those infatuated states than in his own dominions, dictated the terms of the treaty. It was stipulated that each power should retain what it possessed, and that the lesser states, now free from the yoke of the greater, should remain so.

XV.—*Philip of Macedon.*

1. Greece was now in the most abject situation; the spirit of patriotism appeared utterly extinct, and military glory at an end. Athens seemed to have lost all ambition; the pleasures of luxury had entirely supplanted

heroic virtue ; poets, musicians, sculptors, and comedians, were now the only great men of Attica. Sparta, no less changed from the simplicity of her ancient manners, and her power abridged by the new independency of the states of Peloponnesus, was in no capacity to attempt a recovery of her former greatness. In this situation Philip of Macedon formed the ambitious project of bringing under his dominion the whole of Greece.

2. He had mounted the throne of Macedon by popular choice, in violation of the natural right of the nearer heirs to the crown ; and he secured his power by the success of his arms against the Illyrians, Pæonians, and Athenians, who espoused the interest of his competitors. Uniting to great military talents the most consummate artifice and address, he had his pensionaries in all the states of Greece, who directed to his advantage every public measure. The miserable policy of these states, embroiled in perpetual quarrels, co-operated with his designs. A sacrilegious attempt of the Phocians to plunder the temple of Delphos, excited the *Sacred War*, in which almost all the republics took a part ; and Philip's aid being courted by the Thebans and Thessalians, he began hostilities by invading Phœcis, the key to the territory of Attica. Æschines the orator, bribed to his interest, attempted to quiet the alarms of the Athenians, by ascribing to Philip a design only of punishing sacrilege, and vindicating the cause of Apollo. Demosthenes, with true patriotism, exposed the artful designs of the invader, and with the most animated eloquence roused his countrymen to a vigorous effort for the preservation of the national liberties. But the event was unsuccessful. The battle of Cheronæa, fought 337 B.C., decided the fate of Greece, and subjected all her states to the dominion of the King of Macedon. But it was not his policy to treat them as a conquered people. They retained their separate and independent governments, while he controlled and directed all the national measures. Convoking a general council of the states, Philip was appointed commander-in-chief of the forces of Greece ; and he laid before them his project for the conquest of Persia, appointing each republic to furnish its proportional subsidies. On the eve of this great enterprise, Philip was assassinated by Pausanias, a captain of his guards, in revenge of a private injury, 336 B.C. The Athenians, on the death of Philip,

meanly expressed the most tumultuous joy, in the hope of a recovery of their liberty; but this visionary prospect was never realized. The spirit of the nation was gone; and in their subsequent revolutions they only changed their masters.

XVI.—*Alexander the Great.*

1. Alexander, the son of Philip, succeeded at the age of twenty to the throne of Macedon, and, after a few successful battles against the revolted states, to the command of Greece. Assembling the deputies of the nation at Corinth, he communicated to them his resolution of prosecuting the designs of his father for the conquest of Persia.

2. With an army of thirty thousand foot and five thousand horse, the sum of seventy talents, and provisions only for a single month, he crossed the Hellespont, and, in traversing Phrygia, visited the tomb of Achilles. Darius Codomanus, resolved to crush at once this inconsiderate youth, met him on the banks of the Granicus with a hundred thousand foot and ten thousand horse. The Greeks swam the river, their king leading the van, and attacking the astonished Persians, left twenty thousand dead upon the field, and put to flight their whole army. [The Greeks are said to have lost only thirty foot and eighty-five horse.] Drawing from his first success a presage of continued victory, Alexander now sent home his fleet, leaving to his army the sole alternative, that they must subdue Asia or perish. Prosecuting their course for some time without resistance, the Greeks were attacked by the Persians in a narrow valley of Cilicia, near the town of Issus. The Persian host amounted to four hundred thousand, but their situation was such that only a small part could come into action, and they were defeated with prodigious slaughter. The loss of the Persians in this battle was one hundred and ten thousand; that of the Greeks (according to Q. Curtius) only four hundred and fifty.

3. The history of Alexander by Quintus Curtius, though a most excellent composition, is extremely suspicious on the score of authentic information. Arrian is the best authority.

4. The generosity of Alexander was displayed after the battle of Issus, in his attention to his noble prisoners,

the mother, the wife, and family of Darius. To the credit of Alexander it must be owned, that humanity, however overpowered and at times extinguished by his passions, certainly formed a part of his natural character.

5. The consequence of the battle of Issus was the submission of all Syria. Damascus, where Darius had deposited his chief treasures, was betrayed and given up by its governor. The Phœnicians were pleased to see themselves thus avenged for the oppression they had suffered under the yoke of Persia.

6. Alexander had hitherto borne his good fortune with moderation: "Happy," says Curtius, "could he have preserved this moderation to the end of his life; but fortune had not yet taken full possession of his mind." He directed his course towards Tyre, and desired admittance to perform a sacrifice to Hercules. The Tyrians shut their gates, and maintained for seven months a noble defence. The city was at length taken by storm; and the victor glutted his revenge by the inhuman massacre of eight thousand of the inhabitants [332 B.C.] The fate of Gaza, gloriously defended by Bætis, was equally deplorable to its citizens, and more disgraceful to the conqueror. Ten thousand of the former were sold into slavery, and its brave defender dragged at the wheels of the victor's chariot: "The king boasting that, in inflicting punishment on his enemy, he had imitated Achilles, from whom he derived his descent." Curt.

7. The taking of Gaza opened Egypt to Alexander, and the whole country submitted without opposition. Amidst the most incredible fatigues, he now led his army through the deserts of Lybia, to visit the temple of his father *Jupiter Ammon*. On his return he built Alexandria, at the mouth of the Nile, afterwards the capital of the Lower Egypt, and one of the most flourishing cities in the world. Twenty other cities of the same name were reared by him in the course of his conquests. It is such works as these that justly entitle the Macedonian to the epithet of Great. By rearing in the midst of deserts those nurseries of population and of industry, he repaired the waste and havoc of his conquests. But for those monuments of his glory he would have merited no other epithet than that assigned him by the Brahmins of India, *The mighty Murderer*.

8. Returning from Egypt, Alexander traversed Assyria, and was met at Arbēla by Darius, at the head of

seven hundred thousand men. The Persian had proffered peace, consenting to yield the whole country from the Euphrates to the Hellespont, to give Alexander his daughter in marriage, and the immense sum of ten thousand talents; but these terms were haughtily rejected, and peace refused but upon the unqualified submission of his enemy. The Persians were defeated at Arbela, with the loss of three hundred thousand men [331 B.C.] Darius fled from province to province; at length, betrayed by Bessus, one of his own satraps, he was cruelly murdered; and the Persian empire, which had subsisted for two hundred and six years from the time of Cyrus the Great, submitted to the conqueror, 330 B.C.

9. Alexander now projected the conquest of India [327 B.C.], firmly persuaded that the gods had decreed him the sovereignty of the whole habitable globe. He penetrated to the Ganges, and would have advanced to the Eastern Ocean, had the spirit of his army kept pace with his ambition; but his troops, seeing no end to their toils, refused to proceed. He returned to the Indus, from whence, sending round his fleet to the Persian Gulf under Nearchus, he marched his army across the desert to Persepolis.

10. Indignant that he had found a limit to his conquests, he abandoned himself to every excess of luxury and debauchery. The arrogance of his nature and the ardour of his passions, heightened by continual intemperance, broke out into the most outrageous excesses of cruelty, for which, in the few intervals of sober reflection, his ingenuous mind suffered the keenest remorse. From Persepolis he returned to Babylon, and there died in a fit of debauch, in the thirty-third year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign, 324 B.C.

11. Of the character of Alexander the most opposite and contradictory estimates have been formed. While by some he is esteemed nothing better than a fortunate madman, he is by others celebrated for the grandeur, wisdom, and solidity of his political views. Truth is rarely to be found in extreme censure or applause. We may allow to Alexander the spirit and the talents of a great military genius, without combining with these the sober plans of a profound politician. In a moral view of his character, we see an excellent and ingenuous nature corrupted at length by an unvarying current of success, and a striking

example of the fatal violence of the passions, when eminence of fortune removes all restraint, and flattery stimulates to their uncontrolled indulgence.

XVII.—*Successors of Alexander.*

1. Alexander, on his death-bed, named no successor, but gave his ring to Perdiccas, one of his officers. When his courtiers asked him to whom he wished the empire to devolve upon his death, he replied, "To the most worthy;" and he is said to have added, that he foresaw this legacy would prepare for him very extraordinary funeral rites; a prediction which was fully verified.

2. Perdiccas, sensible that his pretensions would not justify a direct assumption of the government of this vast empire, brought about a division of the whole among thirty-three of the principal officers: and trusting to their inevitable dissensions, he proposed by that means to reduce all of them under his own authority. Hence arose a series of wars and intrigues, of which the detail is barren both of amusement and useful information. It is sufficient to say, that their consequence was a total extirpation of the family of Alexander, and a new partition of the empire into four great monarchies, the shares of Ptolemy, Lysimachus, Cassander, and Seleucus. Of these the most powerful were that of Syria, under Seleucus and his descendants; and that of Egypt, under the Ptolemies.

"We cannot," says Condillac, "fix our attention on the history of the successors of Alexander, though a great theatre is open to our view, a variety of scenes, and multiplied catastrophes. A picture is often displeasing from the very circumstance of its greatness; we lose the connexion of its parts, because the eye cannot take them in at once. Still less will a large picture give us pleasure, if every part of it presents a different scene, each unconnected with the other." Such is the history of the successors of Alexander.

XVIII.—*Fall and Conquest of Greece.*

1. Nor is the history of Greece from the period of the death of Alexander, any longer an interesting or pleasing object of contemplation. Demosthenès once more made a noble attempt to vindicate the national freedom, and to rouse his countrymen, the Athenians, to shake off the yoke of Macedon. But it was too late; the pacific

counsels of Phocion suited better the languid spirit of this once illustrious people.

2. The history of the different republics presents, from this time, nothing but a disgusting series of uninteresting revolutions: with the exception, only, of that last effort made by the Achæan states, to revive the expiring liberty of their country. The republic of Achaia was a league of a few of the smaller states, to vindicate their freedom against the domineering spirit of the greater. They committed the government of the league to Aratus of Sicyon, with the title of prætor, a young man of high ambition, who immediately conceived the more extensive project of rescuing the whole of Greece from the dominion of Macedon; but the jealousy of the greater states rendered this scheme abortive. Sparta refused to range herself under the guidance of the prætor of Achaia; and Aratus, forgetting his patriotic designs, sought only now to wreak his vengeance against the Lacedæmonians. For this purpose, with the most inconsistent policy, he courted the aid even of the Macedonians, the very tyrants who had enslaved his country.

3. The period was now come for the intervention of a foreign power, which was to reduce all under its wide-spreading dominion. The Romans were at this time the most powerful of all the contemporary nations. The people of Ætolia, attacked by the Macedonians, with a rash policy, besought the aid of the Romans, who, eager to add to their dominion this devoted country, cheerfully obeyed the summons, and speedily accomplished the reduction of Macedonia. Perseus, its last sovereign, was led captive to Rome, and graced the triumph of Paulus Æmilius, 167 B.C. From that period the Romans were hastily advancing to the dominion of all Greece; a progress in which their art was more conspicuous than their virtue. They gained their end by fostering dissensions between the states, which they directed to their own advantage; corrupting their principal citizens, and using, in fine, every art of the most insidious policy. A pretext was only wanting to unsheath the sword; and this was furnished by the Achæan states, who insulted the deputies of imperial Rome. This drew on them at once the thunder of the Roman arms; Metellus marched his legions into Greece, gave them battle, and entirely defeated them. Mummius the consul terminated the work, and made an

easy conquest of the whole of Greece, which from that period became a Roman province, under the name of Achaia, 146 B.C.

4. Rome had acquired from her conquests a flood of wealth, and began now to manifest a taste for luxury and a spirit of refinement. In these points Greece was to her conquerors an instructor and a model:—"Captured Greece captivated her rude conqueror, and introduced the arts into rustic Latium." Hence, even though vanquished, she was regarded with a species of respect by her ruder masters.

XIX.—*Political Reflections arising from the History of the States of Greece.*

1. The revolutions which the states of Greece underwent, and the situations into which they were thrown by their connexion and differences with each other, and their wars with foreign nations, were so various, that their history is a school of instruction in political science. The surest test of the truth or falsehood of abstract principles of politics, is their application to actual experience and to the history of nations.

2. The oppression which the states of Greece suffered under their ancient despots, who were subject to no constitutional control, was a most justifiable motive for their establishing a new form of government, which promised them the enjoyment of greater political freedom. We believe, too, that those new forms of government were framed by their virtuous legislators in the true spirit of patriotism; but as to the real merits of those political fabrics, it is certain that they were very far from corresponding in practice with what was expected from them in theory. We seek in vain, either in the history of Athens or Lacedæmon, for the beautiful idea of a well-ordered commonwealth. The revolutions of government which they were ever experiencing, the eternal factions with which they were embroiled, plainly demonstrate that there was a radical defect in the structure of the machine, which precluded the possibility of regular motion. The condition of the people under those governments was such as partook more of servitude and oppression than that of the subjects of the most despotic monarchies. The slaves formed the actual majority of the inhabitants in all the

states of Greece. To these the free citizens were rigorous bond-masters ; and bondage being a consequence of the contraction of debts even by a free man, a great proportion even of these were subject to the tyrannical control of their fellow-citizens. Nor were their richer classes in the actual enjoyment of independence. They were perpetually divided into factions, which servilely ranked themselves under the banners of the contending chiefs of the republic. Those parties were kept together solely by corruption. The whole was therefore a system of servility and debasement of spirit, which left nothing of a free or ingenuous nature in the condition of individuals, nor any thing that could furnish encomium to a real advocate for the dignity of human nature.

Such was the condition of the chief republics of antiquity. Their governments promised in theory what they never conferred in practice,—the political happiness of the citizens.

3. “In democracy, (says Dr. Fergusson,) men must love equality ; they must respect the rights of their fellow citizens : they must be satisfied with that degree of consideration they can procure by their abilities fairly measured against those of an opponent : they must labour for the public without hope of profit ; they must reject every attempt to create a personal dependence.” This is the picture of a republic in theory. If we reverse this picture in every single particular, and take its direct opposite, we shall have the true portrait of a republican government in practice.

4. It is the fundamental theory of Montesquieu's *Spirit of Laws*, that the three distinct forms of government, the monarchical, despotal, and republican, are influenced by the three separate principles of honour, fear, and virtue ; and this theory is the foundation on which the author builds a great part of his political doctrines. That each of these principles is exclusively essential to its respective form of government, but unnecessary and even prejudicial in the others, is a position contrary both to reason and to truth. No form of government can subsist where every one of those principles has not its operation. The admission of such a theory leads to the most mischievous conclusions ; as for example, that in monarchies the state dispenses with virtue in its officers and magistrates ; that public employments

ought to be venal ; and that crimes, if kept secret, are of no consequence.

5. It is only in the infant periods of the Grecian history, that we are to look for those splendid examples of patriotism and heroic virtue, which the ardent mind of uncorrupted youth will ever delight to contemplate. The most remarkable circumstance which strikes us on comparing the latter with the more early periods of the history of the Greeks, is the total change in the genius and spirit of the people. The ardour of patriotism, the thirst of military glory, the enthusiasm of liberty, decline with the rising grandeur and opulence of the nation ; and an enthusiasm succeeds of another species, and far less worthy in its aim ; an admiration of the fine arts, a violent passion for the objects of taste, and for the refinements of luxury. This leads us to consider Greece in the light in which, after the loss of her liberty, she still continued to attract the admiration of other nations.

XX.—*State of the Arts in Greece.*

1. It is not among the Greeks that we are to look for the greatest improvements in the useful and necessary arts of life. In agriculture, manufactures, commerce, they never were greatly distinguished, [in fact they imported most of the necessaries and conveniences of life from neighbouring states and foreign countries]. But in those which are termed the Fine Arts, Greece surpassed all the contemporary nations : and the monuments of these which yet remain, are the models of imitation, and the confessed standard of excellence, in the judgment of the most polished nations of modern times.

2. After the defeat of Xerxes, the active spirit of the Athenians, which would have otherwise languished for want of an object, taking a new direction from luxury, displayed itself signally in all the works of taste in the fine arts. The administration of Pericles was the era of luxury and splendour. The arts broke out at once with surprising lustre ; and architecture, sculpture, and painting, were carried to the summit of perfection. This golden age of the arts in Greece endured for about a century, till after the death of Alexander the Great.

3. The Greeks were the parents of that system of architecture which is universally allowed to be the most perfect.

The Greek architecture consisted of three distinct orders ; the Doric, the Ionic, and Corinthian.

The Doric has a masculine grandeur, and a superior air of strength to both the others. It is therefore best adapted to works of great magnitude and of a sublime character. The character of sublimity is essentially connected with chasteness and simplicity. Of this order is the temple of Theseus at Athens, built ten years after the battle of Marathon [48 B.C.] and at this day almost entire.

The Ionic order is light and elegant. The former has a masculine grandeur ; the latter a feminine elegance. The Ionic is likewise simple ; for simplicity is an essential requisite in true beauty. Of this order were the temple of Apollo at Milétus, that of the Delphic Oracle, and the temple of Diana at Ephesus.

The Corinthian marks an age of luxury and magnificence, when pomp and splendour had become the predominant passion, but had not yet extinguished the taste for the sublime and beautiful. It attempts therefore an union of all these characters, but satisfies not the chastened judgment, and pleases only a corrupted taste.

— — — “ First unadorned,
And nobly plain the manly Doric rose ;
The Ionic, then, with decent matron grace,
Her airy pillar heaved ; luxuriant last
The rich Corinthian spread her wanton wreath.”
(Thomson's *Liberty*, part ii.)

4. The Tuscan and the Composite orders are of Italian origin. The Etruscan architecture appears to be nearly allied to the Grecian, but to possess an inferior degree of elegance. The Trajan column at Rome is of this order : less remarkable for the beauty of its proportions, than for the admirable sculpture which decorates it. [This magnificent column is entire at the present day]. The Composite Order is what its name implies ; it shows that the Greeks had in the three original orders exhausted all the principles of grandeur and beauty ; and that it was not possible to frame a fourth, but by combining the former.

5. The Gothic architecture offers no contradiction to these observations. The effect which it produces cannot be altogether accounted for from the rules of symmetry or harmony in the proportions between the several parts ; but depends on a certain idea of vastness, gloominess,

and solemnity, which are powerful ingredients in the sublime.

6. Sculpture, was brought by the Greeks to as high perfection as architecture. The remains of Grecian sculpture are to this day the most perfect models of the art, and modern artists have no means of attaining to excellence so certain as the study of those great master-pieces.

7. The excellence of the Greeks in sculpture may perhaps be accounted for chiefly from their having the human figure often before their eyes quite naked, and in all its various attitudes, both in the *Palæstra*, and in their public games. The antique statues have therefore a grandeur united with perfect simplicity, because the attitude is not the result of an artificial disposition of the figure, as in the modern academies, but is nature unconstrained. Thus, in the Dying Gladiator, when we observe the relaxation of the muscles, and the visible failure of strength and life, we cannot doubt that nature was the sculptor's immediate model of imitation.*

8. And this nature was in reality superior to what we now see in the ordinary race of men. The constant practice of gymnastic exercises gave a finer conformation of body than what is now to be found in the vitiated pupils of modern effeminacy, the artificial children of modern fashion.

9. A *secondary* cause of the eminence of the Greeks in the arts of design, was their theology, which furnished an ample exercise for the genius of the sculptor and painter.

10. We must speak with more diffidence of the ability of the Greeks in painting, than we do of their superiority in sculpture; because the existing specimens of the former are very few, and the pieces which are preserved are probably not the most excellent. But in the want of actual evidence, we have every presumption that the Greeks had attained to equal perfection in the art of painting and in sculpture; for if we find the judgment given by ancient writers of their excellence in sculpture confirmed by the universal assent of the best critics among

* Phidias, Myro, Polycletus and Lysippus were the most celebrated Grecian statuary, besides those named in the text. The Elgin marbles in the British Museum are said to have been sculptured under the superintendence of Phidias, part being the work of his own hands.—ED.

the moderns, we have just reason to presume an equal rectitude in the judgment which the same ancient writers have pronounced upon their paintings. If Pliny is right in his opinion of the merits of those statues which yet remain, the Venus of Praxiteles, and the Laocoon of Alexander, Polydorus, and Athenodorus,* we have no reason to suppose his taste to be less just, when he celebrates the merits, and critically characterises the different manners of Zeuxis, Apelles, Parrhasius, Protogenes, and Timanthes, whose works have perished.

11. The paintings found in Herculaneum, Pompeii, the Sepulchrum Nasonianum at Rome, were probably the work of Greek artists; for the Romans were never eminent in any of the arts dependant on design. These paintings exhibit great knowledge of proportions, and of the chiaro-oscuro, but betray an ignorance of the rules of perspective.

12. The music of the ancients appears to have been very greatly inferior to that of the moderns.

13. The peculiar genius of the Greeks in the fine arts, extended its effects to the revolutions of their states, and influenced their fate as a nation.

XXI.—*Of the Greek Poets.*

1. The Greeks were the first who reduced the athletic exercises to a system, and considered them as an object of general attention and importance. The Panathenæan, and afterwards the Olympic, the Pythian, Nemæan, and Isthmian games, were under the regulation of the laws. They contributed essentially to the improvement of the nation; and while they cherished martial ardour, and promoted hardiness and agility of body, cultivated likewise urbanity and politeness.

2. The games of Greece were not confined to gymnastic or athletic exercises. They encouraged competitions in genius and learning. They were the resort of the poets, the historians, and the philosophers.

3. In all nations poetry is of greater antiquity than prose composition. The earliest prose writers in Greece, Pherecydes of Scyros, and Cadmus of Milétus, were three hundred and fifty years posterior to Homer. Any remains

* "Cresilas sculptured a wounded man fainting with loss of blood, in which may be seen how much of consciousness is left." (Plin. lib. 36.)

of the more ancient poets, as Linus, Orpheus, &c., are extremely suspicious. Homer is generally supposed to have flourished about 907 B.C. ; to have followed the occupation of a wandering minstrel, and to have composed his poems in detached fragments, and separate ballads, and episodes. Pisistratus, about 540 B.C. employed some learned men to collect and methodise these fragments and to this we owe the complete poems of the Iliad and Odyssey. The distinguishing merits of Homer are, his profound knowledge of human nature, his faithful and minute description of ancient manners, his genius for the sublime and beautiful, and the harmony of his poetical numbers. His fidelity as an historian has been questioned ; but the great outlines of his narrative are probably authentic.

4. Hesiod was nearly contemporary with Homer ; a poet of whose merits we should be little sensible were they not seen through the medium of an immense antiquity. The poem of the Works and Days contains some judicious precepts of agriculture. The Theogony is an obscure history of the origin of the gods and the formation of the universe.

5. About two centuries after Homer and Hesiod, flourished Archilochus, the inventor of Iambic verse ; Terpander, equally eminent as a poet and a musician ; Sappho, of whose composition we have two exquisite odes ; Alcaeus and Simonides, of whom there are some fine fragments ; and Pindar and Anacreon, who have left enough to allow an accurate estimate of their merits.

6. Pindar was esteemed by the ancients the chief of the lyric poets. He possesses unbounded fancy and great sublimity of imagery ; but his digressions are so rapid and so frequent, that we cannot discover the chain of thought ; and his expression is allowed, even by Longinus, to be often obscure and unintelligible.

7. Anacreon is a great contrast to Pindar. His fancy suggests only familiar and luxurious pictures. He has no comprehension of the sublime, but contents himself with the easy, the graceful, and the wanton. His morality is loose, and his sentiments little else than the effusions of a voluptuary.

8. The collection termed *Anthologia*, which consists chiefly of ancient epigrams, contains many valuable specimens of the taste and poetical fancy of the Greeks, and

contributes materially to the illustration of their manners. The best of the modern epigrams may be traced to this source.

9. The era of the origin of dramatic composition among the Greeks is about 590 B.C. Thespis [the supposed inventor of tragedy] was contemporary with Solon. Within little more than a century the Greek drama was carried to its highest perfection; for Æschylus died 456 B.C. Æschylus wrote sixty-six tragedies; for thirteen of which he gained the first prize of dramatic poetry at the Olympic games. Only seven are now extant. Like Shakespeare, his genius is sublime, and his imagination unbounded. He disdained regularity of plan, and all artificial restriction; but unfortunately he disdained likewise the restraints of decency and of good morals.

10. Euripides and Sophocles flourished about fifty years after Æschylus. Euripides is most masterly in painting the passion of love, both in its tenderest emotions and in its most violent paroxysms: yet the characters of his women demonstrate that he had no great opinion of the virtues of the sex. Longinus does not rate high his talent for the sublime: but he possessed a much superior excellence: his verses, with great eloquence and harmony, breathe the most admirable morality. There remain twenty tragedies of Euripides; and of these the Medea is deemed the most excellent.

11. Sophocles shared with Euripides the palm of dramatic poetry; and is judged to have surpassed him in the grand and sublime. Of one hundred and twenty tragedies which he composed, only seven remain. They display great knowledge of the human heart, and a general chastity and simplicity of expression, which give the greater force to the occasional strokes of the sublime. The *Oedipus* of Sophocles is esteemed the most perfect production of the Greek stage.

12. The Greek comedy is divided into the *ancient*, the *middle*, and the *new*. The first was a licentious satire and mimicry of real personages exhibited by name upon the stage. The laws repressed this extreme license, and gave birth to the middle comedy, which continued the satirical delineation of real persons, but under fictitious names, the last improvement consisted in banishing all personal satire, and confining comedy to a delineation of manners. This was the new comedy. Of the first spe-

ries, the ancient, we have no remains. The dramas of Aristophanes are an example of the second or middle comedy. The grossness of his raillery, and the malevolence which frequently inspired it, are a reproach to the morals of that people which could tolerate it. Yet his works have their value, as throwing light upon ancient manners.

13. Of the new comedy Menander was the bright example; possessing a vein of the most delicate wit, with the utmost purity of moral sentiment. Unfortunately we have nothing of him remaining but a few fragments preserved by Athenæus. We see a great deal of his merits however, in his copyist and translator Terence.

14. The actors both in the Greek and Roman theatres wore masks, of which the features were strongly painted, and the mouth so constructed as to increase the power of the voice. It is probable the tragedy and comedy of the Greeks and Romans were set to music, and sung like the recitative in the Italian opera; and sometimes one person was employed to recite or sing the part, and another to perform the corresponding action or gesticulation.

15. The Mimes were burlesque parodies on the serious tragedy and comedy. The Pantomimes consisted solely of gesticulation, and were carried to great perfection.

XXII.—*Of the Greek Historians.*

1. The most eminent of the Greek historians were contemporaries. Herodotus died 413 B.C.; Thucydides, 391 B.C.; and Xenophon was about twenty years younger than Thucydides. Herodotus [a native of Halicarnassus one of the Greek cities in Asia] writes the joint history of the Greeks and Persians, from the time of Cyrus to the battles of Platea and Mycale. He treats incidentally likewise of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Medes, and Lydians. His veracity is to be depended on in all matters that fell under his own observation; but he admits too easily the reports of others, and is in general fond of the marvellous. His style is pure, and he has a copious elocution.

2. Thucydides, [a native of Athens], himself an able general, has written with great ability the history of the first twenty-one years of the Peloponnesian war; introducing it with a short narrative of the preceding periods of the history of Greece. He is justly esteemed for his

fidelity and candour. His style was a contrast to the full and flowing period of Herodotus, possessing a sententious brevity, which is at once lively and energetic. The history of the remaining six years of the war of Peloponnesus was written by Theopompus and Xenophon.

3. Xenophon commanded the Greek army in the service of Cyrus the younger, in his culpable enterprise against his brother Artaxerxes. (See sect. 13, § 6.) After the failure of this enterprise, Xenophon directed that astonishing retreat from Babylon to the Euxine, of which he has given an interesting and faithful narrative. He wrote likewise the *Cyropædia*, or the history of the elder Cyrus, which is believed to be rather an imaginary delineation of an accomplished prince than a real narration. He continued the history of Thucydides, and has left two excellent political tracts on the constitutions of Lacedæmon and Athens. His style is simple and energetic, familiar, unadorned, and free from all affectation.

4. Greece, in her decline, produced some historians of great eminence. Polybius, a native of Megalopolis, wrote forty books of the Roman and Greek history during his own age; that is, from the beginning of the second Punic war to the reduction of Macedonia into a Roman province; but of this great work only the first five books are entire, with an epitome of the following twelve. He merits less the praise of eloquence and purity, than of authentic information, and most judicious reflection.

5. Diodorus Siculus flourished in the time of Augustus, and composed, in forty books, a general history of the world, under the title of *Bibliotheca Historica*. No more remain than fifteen books, of which the first five treat of the fabulous periods, and the history of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Persians, Greeks, &c., prior to the Trojan war. The next five are wanting. The remainder brings down the history from the expedition of Xerxes into Greece till after the death of Alexander the Great. He is taxed with chronological inaccuracy in the earlier parts of his work: but the authenticity and correctness of the latter periods are unimpeached.

6. Dionysius of Halicarnassus, eminent both as an historian and rhetorician, flourished in the age of Augustus. His *Roman Antiquities*, contain much valuable information, though his work is too much tinctured with the spirit of systematizing.

7. [Strabo, a native of Amasia, wrote, in the age of Augustus and Tiberius, a Geography, which he divided into seventeen books, wherein he describes the origin, manners, religion, and government of the most celebrated nations of the ancient world, and the foundation and minute history of the most renowned cities and provinces then in existence.]

8. Plutarch, a native of Chæronéa, in Bœotia, flourished in the reign of Nero. His *Lives of Illustrious Men* is one of the most valuable of the literary works of the ancients; introducing us to an acquaintance with the private character and manners of those eminent persons whose public achievements are recorded by professed historians. His morality is excellent; his style, though not eloquent, clear and energetic.

9. Arrian [a philosopher of Nicomedia], wrote in the reign of Adrian, seven books of the wars of Alexandria, with great judgment and fidelity (his narrative being composed on the authority of Aristobólus and Ptolemy, two of Alexander's principal officers). His style is unadorned, but chaste, perspicuous, and manly.

XXIII.—*Of the Greek Philosophers.*

1. After the time of Homer and Hesiod, the increasing relish for poetical composition gave rise to a set of men termed rhapsodists, whose employment was to recite at the games and festivals the compositions of the older poets, and to comment on their merits and explain their doctrines. Some of these, founding schools of instruction, were dignified by their pupils with the epithet of sophists, or teachers of wisdom.

2. The most ancient school of philosophy was that founded by Thales [of Miletus], 640 B.C., and termed the Ionic. Thales is celebrated for his knowledge both in geometry and astronomy. His metaphysical doctrines are but imperfectly known. He taught the belief of a First Cause, and an overruling Providence; but supposed the Divinity to animate the universe, as the soul does the body. The moral doctrines of the Ionic school were pure and rational. The most eminent of the disciples of Thales were Anaximander and Anaxagoras [the tutor of Pericles.]

3. Soon after the Ionic arose the Italian sect, founded by Pythagoras, who was born about 586 B.C. He is supposed to have derived much of his knowledge from Egypt;

and he had, like the Egyptian priests, a public doctrine for the people, and a private for his disciples: the former a good system of morals, the latter probably unintelligible mystery. His notions of Divinity were akin to those of Thales; but he believed in the eternity of the universe, and its co-existence with the Deity. He taught the transmigration of the soul through different bodies. His disciples lived in common; they abstained rigorously from the flesh of animals; they held music in high estimation, as a corrective of the passions. Pythagoras believed the earth to be a sphere, the planets to be inhabited, and the fixed stars to be the suns and centres of other systems. His most eminent followers were Empedocles, Epicharmus, Ocellus Lucanus, Timæus, Archytus

4. The Eleatic sect was founded by Xenophanes, about 500 B.C. [538]. Its chief supporters were Parmenides, Zéno, and Leucippus, citizens of Elea* [in Western Italy]. The metaphysical notions of this sect were utterly unintelligible. They maintained, that things had neither beginning, end, nor any change; and that all the changes we perceive are in our own senses. Yet Leucippus taught the doctrine of atoms, from whence he supposed all material substances to be formed. Of this sect were Democritus and Heraclitus.

5. The Socratic school arose from the Ionic. Socrates died 401 B.C., the wisest, the most virtuous of the Greeks. He exploded the futile logic of the sophists, which consisted of a set of general arguments applicable to all manner of questions, and by which they could, with an appearance of plausibility, maintain either side of any proposition. Socrates always brought his antagonist to particulars; beginning with a simple and undeniable position, which being granted, another followed equally undeniable, till the disputant was conducted step by step, by his own concessions, to that side of the question on which lay the truth. His rivals lost all credit as philosophers, but had influence to procure the destruction of the man who had exposed them. The doctrines of Socrates are to be learned from Pláto and Xenophon. He taught the belief of a First Cause, whose beneficence is equal to his power, the Creator and Ruler of the universe. He inculcated the moral agency of man, the immortality of the

* A city, Niebuhr remarks, not famous for its wars, but for its profound thinkers.—ED.

soul, and a future state of reward and punishment. He exploded the polytheistic superstitions of his country, and thence became the victim of an accusation of impiety. (See sect. 13, § 5.)

6. The morality of Socrates was successfully cultivated by the Cyrenaic sect, but was pushed the length of extravagance by the Cynics. Virtue, in their opinion, consisted in renouncing all the conveniencies of life. They clothed themselves in rags, slept and ate in the streets, or wandered about the country with a stick and a knapsack. They condemned all knowledge as useless. They associated impudence with ignorance, and indulged themselves in scurrility and invective without restraint.*

7. The Megarean sect were the happy inventors of logical syllogism, or the art of quibbling.

8. The Academic sect had Plato [a native of Ægina] for its founder; a philosopher whose doctrines have had a more extensive empire over the minds of mankind than those of any other among the ancients. This is in part owing to their intrinsic merit, and in part to the eloquence with which they have been propounded. Plato had the most sublime ideas of the Divinity and his attributes. He taught that the human soul was a portion of the Divinity, and that this alliance with the eternal mind might be improved into actual intercourse with the Supreme Being, by abstracting the soul from all the corruptions it derives from the body; a doctrine highly flattering to the pride of man, and generating that mystical enthusiasm which has the most powerful empire over a warm imagination.

9. The Platonic philosophy found its chief opponents in four remarkable sects, the Peripatetic, the Sceptic, the Stoic, and the Epicurean.

10. Aristotle, [a native of Stagyra in Thrace, a city at that time under the dominion of Macedonia], was the founder of the Peripatetic sect, he was also the tutor of Alexander the Great, and established his school in the Lycæum at Athens; a philosopher whose tenets have found more zealous partizans, and more rancorous opponents, than those of any other. His Metaphysics, from the sententious brevity of his expression, are extremely obscure, and have given rise to numberless commentaries. The

* The remarks in the text rather apply to Diogenes, who carried the doctrines of this school to such unreasonable extremes as soon to bring it into disrepute.—ED.

best analysis of his logic is given by Dr. Reid in *Lor. Kames's Sketches of the History of Man*. His physical works are the result of great observation and acquaintance with nature; and his critical writings, as his *Poetics* and *Art of Rhetoric*, display both taste and judgment. It is the latter works that will ever continue to be most valued. The peculiar passion of Aristotle, was that of classifying, arranging, and combining the objects of his knowledge, so as to reduce all to a few principles; a dangerous propensity in philosophy, and repressive of improvement in science.

11. The Sceptical sect was founded by Pyrrho, [a native of Elea, 336 B.C.] They formed no system of their own, but endeavoured to weaken the foundations of those of all others. They inculcated universal doubt as the only true wisdom. There was, in their opinion, no essential difference between vice and virtue, farther than as human compact had discriminated them. Tranquillity of mind they supposed to be the state of the greatest happiness, and this was to be attained by absolute indifference to all dogmas or opinions.

12. The Stoics, proposing to themselves the same end, tranquillity of mind, took a nobler path to arrive at it. They endeavoured to raise themselves above all the passions and feelings of humanity. They believed all nature, and God himself, the soul of the universe, to be regulated by fixed and immutable laws. The human soul, being a portion of the Divinity, man cannot complain of being actuated by that necessity which actuates the Divinity himself. His pains and his pleasures are determined by the same laws which determine his existence. Virtue consists in accommodating the disposition of the mind to the immutable laws of nature; vice in opposing those laws: vice therefore is folly, and virtue the only true wisdom. A beautiful picture of the Stoical philosophy is found in the *Enchiridion* of Epictétus, and in the *Meditations* of M. Aurelius Antoninus. [Zeno, a native of Cyprus and disciple of Crates the Cynic, was the founder of this sect].

13. Epicúrus taught that man's supreme happiness consisted in pleasure. He himself limited the term so as to make it mean only the practice of virtue. But if pleasure is allowed to be the object, every man will draw it from those sources which he finds can best supply it. It might have been the pleasure of Epicurus to be chaste and tem-

perate ; we are told it was so. But others find their pleasure in intemperance and luxury ; and such was the taste of his principal followers. Epicurus held that the Deity was indifferent to all the actions of man ; they therefore had no other counsellor than their own conscience, and no other guide than the instinctive desire of their own happiness.

14. The Greek philosophy, on the whole, affords little else than a picture of the imbecility and caprice of the human mind. Its teachers, instead of experiment and observation, satisfied themselves with constructing theories ; and these, wanting fact for their basis, have only served to perplex the understanding, and retard equally the advancement of sound morality and the progress of useful knowledge.

XXIV.--*The History of Rome.*

1. In the delineation of ancient history, Rome, after the conquest of Greece, becomes the leading object of attention ; and the history of this empire, in its progress to universal dominion, and afterwards in its decline and fall, involves a collateral account of all the other nations of antiquity which, in those periods, are deserving of our consideration.

2. Although we cannot conjecture with certainty as to the era when Italy was first peopled, we have every reason to believe that it was inhabited by a refined and cultivated nation many ages before the Roman name was known. These were the Etruscans, of whom there exist at this day monuments in the fine arts which prove them to have been a splendid, luxurious, and highly polished people. Their alphabet, resembling the Phœnician, disposes us to believe them of eastern origin. The Roman historians mention them as a powerful and opulent nation, long before the origin of Rome, "The power of the Tuscans extended far and wide by sea and land before the Roman sway" (lib. v. 33); and Dionysius of Halicarnassus deduces most of the religious rites of the Romans from Etruria.

3. The rest of Italy was divided among a number of independent tribes or nations, comparatively in a rude and uncultivated state ; Umbrians, Ligurians, Sabines, Veientes, Latins, Æqui, Volsci, &c. Latium, a territory of fifty miles in length and sixteen in breadth, contained forty-seven independent cities or states.

4. The origin of the city and state of Rome is involved in great uncertainty. Dionysius supposes two cities of that name to have existed, and to have perished before the foundation of the city built by Romulus. The vulgar account of the latter is, that it was founded 752 B.C., by a troop of shepherds or banditti, who peopled their new city by carrying off the wives and daughters of their neighbours the Sabines.*

5. The great outlines of the first constitution of the Roman government, though generally attributed to the political abilities of Romulus, seem to have a natural foundation in the usages of barbarous nations. Other institutions bear the traces of political skill and positive enactment.

6. Romulus is said to have divided his people into three tribes, and each tribe into ten *curiæ* [or rather, ten *curiæ* formed one tribe.] The lands he distributed into three portions, one for the support of the government, another for the maintenance of religion, and the third he divided into equal portions of two acres to each Roman citizen. He instituted a senate of one hundred members (afterwards increased to two hundred), who deliberated on and prepared all public measures for the assembly of the people, in whom was vested the right of determination. The patrician families were the descendants of those *centum patres*.

7. The king had the nomination of the senators, the privilege of assembling the people, and a right of appeal in all questions of importance. He had the command of the army, and the office of [chief priest or] *Pontifex Maximus*. He had as a guard twelve lictors, and a troop of horsemen named *Celeres* or *Equites*, afterwards the distinct order of Roman knights. These regulations are of positive institution: others arose naturally from the state of society.

8. The *patria potestas* [or the power which every

* Niebuhr, in his elaborate history of Rome, affirms, that Romulus and Remus, are but different forms of one and the same name, that the story of the twins indicate that the Romans, previous to their union with the Sabines, were a double people (vestiges of which are clearly traceable), each being ruled under its own king as *Romans* and *Quirites*; that the Rape of the Sabines was a poetical story founded on the intermarriage of the *Sabines* with the *Romans*, that Rome originally belonged to the number of free Latin towns or petty states, acknowledging supremacy to *Alba*, and that about the time of the foundation of the Roman empire, Rome, in conjunction with the Latin states, captured Alba.--E.D.

father of a family enjoyed over his household], is of the latter nature, being common to all barbarous tribes. The limitation of all arts to the slaves arose from the constant employment of the citizens in warfare or in agriculture.

9. The connexion of patron and client was an admirable institution, which at once united the citizens, and maintained a useful subordination.

10. The Sabines were the most formidable enemy of the early Romans; and a wise policy united for a while the two nations into one state. After the death of Romulus, who reigned thirty-seven years, Numa, a Sabine, was elected king. His disposition was pious and pacific, and he endeavoured to give his people the same character. He pretended to divine inspiration, in order to give the greater authority to his laws, which in themselves were excellent. He multiplied the national gods, built temples, and instituted different classes of priests, *Flamines*, *Salii*, &c., and a variety of religious ceremonies. The *Flamines* officiated each in the service of a particular deity; the *Salii* guarded the sacred bucklers; the *Vestals* cherished the sacred fire; the *Augurs* and *Aruspices* divined future events from the flight of birds, and the entrails of victims. [He built] the temple of Janus, which was open in war and shut during peace. Numa reformed the kalendar, regulating the year at twelve lunar months, and distinguished the days for civil occupation (*Fasti*) from those dedicated to religious rest (*Nefasti*.) Agriculture was lawful on the latter, as a duty of religion. Numa reigned forty-three years.

11. Tullus Hostilius, the third king of Rome, of warlike disposition, subdued the Albans, Fidenates, and other neighbouring states. The Sabines, now disunited from the Romans, were among the most powerful of their enemies. Tullus [carried on a successful war against them, and] reigned thirty-three years.

12. Ancus Martius, the grandson of Numa, was elected king on the death of Tullus. He inherited the piety and virtues of his grandfather, and joined to these the talents of a warrior. He increased the population of Rome by naturalizing some of the conquered states; enlarged and fortified the city, and built the port of Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber. He reigned gloriously twenty-four years.

13. Tarquinius Priscus [said to be the son of Damaretus], a citizen of Corinth, popular for his wealth and

liberality, was elected to the vacant throne. He enlarged the senate by one hundred new members from the plebeian families, *Patres minorum gentium*. This body consisted now of three hundred, at which number it remained for some centuries. Tarquin was victorious in his wars, and he adorned and improved the city with works of utility and magnificence. Such were the Circus or Hippodrome; the walls of hewn stone; the Capitol; the Cloacæ, those immense common sewers, which led to the belief that the new Rome had been built on the ruins of an ancient city of greater magnitude. [He made preparations for surrounding the city with a wall of stone after the Etruscan manner.] Tarquinius was assassinated in the thirty-eighth year of his reign.

14. Servius Tullius, [the son of a female captive], who had married the daughter of Tarquinius, secured, by his own address, and the intrigues of his mother-in-law, his election to the vacant throne. He courted popularity by acts of munificence; discharging the debts of the poor, dividing among the citizens his patrimonial lands, improving the city with useful edifices, and extending its boundaries. The new arrangement which he introduced in the division of the Roman citizens, is a proof of much political ability, and merits attention, as on it depended many of the revolutions of the republic.

15. From the time that the Romans had admitted the Albans and Sabines to the rights of citizens, the Urban and Rustic tribes were composed of those three nations. Each tribe being divided into [or consisting of] ten *curiæ*, and every curia having an equal vote in the *comitia*, as each individual had in his tribe, all questions were decided by the majority of suffrages. There was no pre-eminence between the *curiæ*, and the order in which they gave their votes was determined by lot. This was a reasonable constitution, so long as the fortune of the citizens were nearly on a par; but when riches came to be unequally divided, it was obvious that much inconvenience must have arisen from this equal partition of power, as the rich could easily, by bribery, command the suffrages of the poor. Besides, all the taxes had hitherto been levied by the head, without any regard to the inequality of fortunes. These obvious defects furnished Servius a just pretext for an entire change of system. His plan

was to remove the poorer citizens from all share of the government; while the burdens attending its support should fall solely on the rich.

16. All the citizens were required, under a heavy penalty, to declare upon oath their names, dwellings, number of their children, and amount of their fortune. After this numeration or *census*, Servius divided the whole citizens, without distinction, into four tribes, named from the quarters where they dwelt, the *Palatine*, *Suburran*, *Collatine*, and *Esquiline*. Besides this local division, Servius distributed the whole people into six classes, and each class into several centuries, or portions of citizens, so called, not as actually consisting of an hundred, but as being obliged to furnish and maintain one hundred men in time of war. In the first class, which consisted of the richest citizens, or those who were worth at least 100 *minæ*, [about £300 sterling;] there were no less than 98 centuries. In the second class (those worth 75 *minæ*) there were 22 centuries. In the third (those worth 50 *minæ*) were 20 centuries. In the fourth (those worth 25 *minæ*,) 22 centuries. In the fifth (those worth 12 *minæ*) 30 centuries. The sixth, the most numerous of the whole, comprehending all the poorer citizens, furnished only one century. Thus the whole Roman people were divided into 193 centuries, or portions of citizens, so called, as furnishing each 100 soldiers. The sixth class was declared exempt from all taxes. The other classes, according to the number of centuries of which they consisted, were rated for the public burdens at so much for each century.

17. The poor had no reason to complain of this arrangement; but something was wanting to compensate the rich for the burdens to which they were subjected. For this purpose Servius enacted, that henceforth the *comitia* should give their votes by centuries; the first class, consisting of ninety-eight centuries, always voting first. Thus, although the whole people were called to the *comitia*, and all seemed to have an equal suffrage, yet in reality, the richer classes determined every question, the suffrage of the poor being merely nominal: for as the whole people formed 193 centuries, and the first and second classes contained 120 of these, if they were unanimous, which generally happened in questions of importance, a

majority was secured. Thus, in the *Comitia Centuriata*, in which the chief magistrates were elected, peace and war decreed, and all other important business discussed, the richer classes of the citizens had the sole authority, the votes of the poor being of no avail. And such was the ingenuity of this policy, that all were pleased with it: the rich paid their taxes with cheerfulness, as the price of their power; and the poor gladly exchanged authority for immunities. The census, performed every five years, was closed by a *lustrum*, or expiatory sacrifice, [which consisted of a bull, a ram, and a hog]; and hence that period of time was called a *lustrum*.

18. Servius was assassinated after a reign of forty-four years, by his infamous daughter Tullia, married to Tarquinius, the grandson of Priscus, who thus paved the way for his own elevation to the throne. The government of Tarquin, surnamed the Proud, was systematically tyrannical. He ingratiated himself with the lower orders, to abase by their means the power of the higher; but insolent, rapacious, and cruel, he finally disgusted all ranks of his subjects. An outrage committed by his son Sextus on Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus, who unable to survive her dishonour, stabbed herself in presence of her husband and kindred, roused their vengeance, and procured, by their influence with their countrymen, the expulsion of the tyrant, and the utter abolition of the regal dignity at Rome, 509 B.C.*

19. *Reflections on the Government and State of Rome during the period of the Kings.*—The whole structure of the constitution of the Romans under the monarchy has been by most authors erroneously attributed exclusively to the abilities of Romulus, a youth of eighteen, the leader of a troop of shepherds or banditti. This chimerical idea we owe to Dionysius of Halicarnassus.

* Livy informs us that the monarchy of Rome subsisted two hundred and forty-four years, and during that time only seven kings reigned, several of whom died a violent death, that the three latter reigns occupied a space of one hundred and seven years, and that the last of these kings (*Tarquin*) lived thirteen years after his expulsion. Dr. Arnold, in his history of Rome, chap. 5. challenges the authenticity of these statements. In fact most modern authors deem the chronology of the Roman kings decidedly erroneous, the most probable conjecture is, that the main facts recorded in connection with the Roman sovereignty are, perhaps, true, but that the data and minor detail have been so distorted by the ravages of time, and the freaks of fiction, as to render these early records, although resting upon some certainties, hardly admissible within the pale of historical facts.—ED.

The truth is, the Roman government, like almost every other, was the gradual result of circumstances; the fruit of time, and of political emergency.

20. The constitution of the Roman senate has occasioned considerable research, and is not free from obscurity. It is probable that the kings had the sole right of naming the senators, that the consuls succeeded them in this right, and afterwards, when these magistrates found too much occupation from the frequent wars in which the state was engaged, that privilege devolved on the censors. The senators were at first always chosen from the body of the patricians, but afterwards the plebeians acquired an equal title to that dignity. In the early periods of the republic, the people could not be assembled but by the senate's authority; nor were the *plebiscita* of any weight till confirmed by their decree. Hence the early constitution of the republic was rather aristocratical than democratical. From this extensive power of the senate, the first diminution was made by the creation of the tribunes of the people; and other retrenchments successively took place, till the people acquired at length the predominant power in the state. Yet the senate, even after every usurpation on their authority, continued to have, in many points, a supremacy. They regulated all matters regarding religion; they had the custody of the public treasure; they superintended the conduct of all magistrates; they gave audience to ambassadors, decided on the fate of vanquished nations, disposed of the governments of the provinces, and took cognizance, by appeal, in all crimes against the state. In great emergencies they appointed a dictator, with absolute authority.

21. At the period of the abolition of the regal government, the territory of the Romans was extremely limited. [it is said to have been only forty miles in length by thirty broad]. The only use they yet made of their victories was to naturalize the inhabitants of some of the conquered states, and so increase their population. Thus their strength being always superior to their enterprises, they laid a solid foundation for the future extension of their empire.

22. In the accounts given by historians of the strength of the armies, both of the Romans in those early times, and of the neighbouring states their enemies, we have every reason to believe there is much exaggeration. The

territories from which those armies were furnished were incapable of supplying them.

23. In the continual wars in which the republic was engaged, the Romans were most commonly the aggressors. The causes of this seem to have been the ambition of the consuls to distinguish their short administration by some splendid enterprise, and the wish of the senate to give the people occupation, to prevent intestine disquiets.

24. The regal government subsisted two hundred and forty-four years, and in that time only seven kings reigned, several of whom died a violent death. These circumstances throw doubt on the authenticity of this period of the Roman history. It is allowed that, for the five first centuries after the building of Rome, there were no historians. The first is Fabius Pictor, who lived during the second Punic war. Livy says that almost all the ancient records were destroyed when Rome was taken by the Gauls.

XXV.—*Rome under the Consuls.*

1. The regal government being abolished, it was agreed to commit the supreme authority to two magistrates, who should be annually elected by the people from the patrician order. To these they gave the name of *consules*; "a modest title," says Vertot, "which gave to understand that they were rather the counsellors of the republic than its sovereigns; and that the only point they ought to have in view was its preservation and glory." But, in fact, their authority differed scarcely in any thing from that of the kings. They had the supreme administration of justice, the disposal of the public money, the power of convoking the senate, and assembling the people, raising armies, naming all the officers, and the right of making peace and war. The only difference was, that their authority was limited to a year.

2. The first consuls were Brutus, and Collatinus the husband of Lucretia. Tarquin was at this time in Etruria, where he had got two of the most powerful cities, Veii and Tarquinii, to espouse his cause. He had likewise his partizans at Rome; and a plot was formed to open the gates to receive him. It was detected; and Brutus had the mortification to find his two sons and the nephews of Collatinus in the number of the conspirators. [Brutus sat in judgment upon his sons and] condemned

them to be beheaded in his presence ; “ He laid aside the character of a father, that he might perform that of a consul ; and preferred his own bereavement to the neglect of public vengeance.” Val. Max. [Collatinus, unable to follow the patriotic example of Brutus, endeavoured to avert the punishment of his nephews, and thereby procured his own deposition and banishment.]

3. The consul Valerius, [who had been chosen in the room of Collatinus] successful in an engagement with the exiled Tarquin, was the first Roman who enjoyed the splendid reward of a triumph.* Arrogant from his recent honours, his popularity began to decline ; and in the view of recovering it, he proposed the law termed from him the Valerian, which “ permitted any citizen who had been condemned to death by a magistrate, or even to banishment or scourging, to appeal to the people, and required their consent previously to the execution of the sentence.” This law gave the first blow to the aristocracy in the constitution of the Roman republic [B.C. 509.]

4. For thirteen years after the expulsion of Tarquin the Romans were involved in continual wars on his account. Of these the most remarkable was that with the Etrurians, under Porsenna ; a war fertile in exploits of romantic heroism.

5. Soon after this period began those domestic disorders, which continued long to embroil the republic. Great complaints had arisen among the poorer classes of the citizens, both on account of the inequality of property from the partial distribution of the conquered lands, which the higher ranks generally contrived to engross to themselves, and from the harsh policy by which it was in the power of creditors to reduce to a state of slavery their insolvent debtors. As there was no legal restraint on usury, the poor, when once reduced to the necessity of contracting debts, were left entirely at the mercy of their creditors. These grievances, felt in common by a large proportion of the citizens, excited much discontent, which, from complaints long disregarded, grew at length into a spirit of determined resistance. The wars required new levies ; and the plebeians positively refused to enrol their names, unless the senate should put an end to their oppression, by decreeing at once an abolition of all the debts

* Brutus was killed in this battle, the people paid him high funeral honours, and mourned for him for a whole year, as if they had lost a common father.--ED.

due by the poor to the rich. The emergency was critical, as the enemy was at the gates of Rome. The consuls found their authority of no avail; for the Valerian law had given any citizen condemned by them a right of appeal to the people. An extraordinary measure was necessary, and a dictator was created for the first time; a magistrate who, for the period of six months, was invested with absolute and unlimited authority; [the senate appointed one of the consuls to choose the dictator, which was always afterwards the custom]. Lartius, nominated to this high office, armed the twenty-four lictors with axes, summoned the whole people to the comitia, and calling over the names, under the penalty of death to any citizen who should dare to murmur, enrolled all such as he judged most fit for the service of their country. This expedient became henceforward a frequent and certain resource in all seasons of public danger.

6. The death of Tarquin removed one check against the tyranny of the higher over the lower orders; for the latter had hitherto kept alive a salutary apprehension, that, in case of extreme oppression, they would be under the necessity of calling back their king. When this fear was at an end, the domineering spirit of the patricians, exceeding every bound both of good policy and humanity, drove the people at length to deeds of mutiny and rebellion. An alarm from the enemy gave full weight to their power, and made the chief magistrates of the state solemnly engage their honour to procure a redress of their grievances, as soon as the public danger was at an end. The promise, either from a failure of will or of power, was not fulfilled, and this violation of faith drove the people at length to extremities. Bound by their military oath not to desert their standards, they carried them along with them; and the whole army, in military array, [under Sicinius Bellutus] withdrew from Rome, and deliberately encamped on the Mons Sacer, at three miles distance from the city; and here they were soon joined by the greatest part of the people. This resolute procedure had its desired effect. The senate deputed ten persons, the most respectable of their order, with plenary powers; and these, seeing no medium of compromise, granted to the people all their demands. The debts were solemnly abolished; and for the security of their privileges in future, they were allowed the right of choosing

magistrates of their own order, who should have the power of opposing with effect every measure which they should judge prejudicial to their interests. These were the tribunes of the people, chosen annually ; at first five in number, and afterwards increased to ten. Without guards or tribunal, and having no seat in the senate-house, they had yet the power by a single *veto*, to suspend or annul the decrees of the senate and the sentences of the consuls. Their persons were declared sacred, but their authority was confined to the limits of a mile from the city. The tribunes demanded and obtained two magistrates to assist them, who were termed *Ædiles*, from the charge committed to them of the buildings of the city. [They afterwards had the care of the spectacles, games, and other matters of police within the city bounds.]

7. From this era (260 years from the foundation of Rome) we date the commencement of the popular constitution of the Roman republic ; a change operated by the unwise policy of the patricians themselves, who, by yielding to just complaints, and humanely redressing flagrant abuses, might have easily anticipated every ground of dissatisfaction. The first wish of the people was not power, but relief from tyranny and oppression ; and had this been readily granted them, if not by abolishing the debts, at least by repressing enormous usury, and putting an end to the inhuman right of corporal punishment and the bondage of debtors, the people would have cheerfully returned to order and submission, and the Roman constitution have long remained what we have seen it was at the commencement of the consular government, aristocratical. But the plebeians now obtaining magistrates of their own order with those high powers, we shall see it become the object of the magistrates to increase their authority by continual demands and bold encroachments. The people, regarding them as the champions of their rights, are delighted to find themselves gradually approaching to a level with the higher order ; and no longer bounding their desires to ease and security, are soon as much influenced by ambition as their superiors. While this people, borne down by injustice, seek no more than the redress of real grievances, we sympathize with their feelings, and applaud their spirited exertions ; but compassing at length the end they wished, attaining ease and security, nay, power which they had neither sought nor

expected ; when we see them, after this, increasing in their demands, assuming that arrogance they justly blamed in their superiors, goaded on by the ambition of their leaders to tyrannize in their turn ; we view with proper discrimination the love of liberty and its extreme licentiousness ; and treat with just detestation the authors of those pernicious measures which embroiled the state in endless faction, and paved the way for the total loss of that liberty of which this deluded people knew not the value when they actually possessed it.

XXVI.—*The Law of Volero.*

1. The disorders of the commonwealth, appeased by the creation of the tribunes, were but for a time suspended. It was necessary that the popular magistrates should make an experiment of their powers. In an assembly of the people, one of the consuls, interrupted by a tribune, rashly said, that had the tribunes called that assembly, he would not have interrupted them. This was a concession on the part of the consuls, that the tribunes had the power of assembling the comitia, which from that moment they assumed as their acknowledged right. It was a consequence of this right, that the affairs of the commonwealth should be agitated in those meetings, equally as in the assemblies held in virtue of a consular summons or senatorial decree, and thus there were, in a manner, two distinct legislative powers established in the republic.

2. The trial of Coriolanus for inconsiderately proposing the abolition of the tribunate, an offence interpreted to be treason against the state, threw an additional weight into the scale of the people. The proposal of an Agrarian law, for the division of the lands acquired by recent conquests, resumed at intervals, though never carried into execution, inflamed the passions of the rival orders.

3. Publius Volero, formerly a centurion, and a man distinguished for his military services, had, in the new levies, been ranked as a common soldier. Complaining of this unmerited degradation, he refused his services in that capacity : and the consuls having condemned him to corporal punishment, he appealed from their sentence to the people. The contest lasted till the annual term of elections, when Volero himself was chosen a tribune of the people. He had an ample revenge by procuring the

enactment of a most important law. The comitia, by centuries and by curiæ, could not be called but in virtue of a decree of the senate, after consulting the aruspices ; and in those comitia the tribunes had hitherto been elected, and the most important public affairs discussed. It was decreed by the law of Volero, that the elections of the tribunes should be made, and the chief public business henceforward discussed, in the comitia held by tribes, which were unfettered by any of those restraints. From this period, the supreme authority in the Roman republic may be considered as having passed completely from the higher order into the hands of the people. The Roman constitution was now plainly a democracy, 471 B.C.

XXVII.—*The Decemvirate.*

1. The Romans had till this period no body of civil laws. Under the regal government the kings alone administered justice ; the consuls succeeded them in this high prerogative ; and thus possessed without control the absolute command of the fortunes and civil rights of all the citizens. To remedy this great defect, Terentellus, a tribune, proposed the nomination of ten commissioners, to frame and digest a code of laws for the explanation and security of the rights of all orders of the state. A measure so equitable ought to have met with no opposition. It was, however, strenuously though ineffectually opposed by the patricians, who, by a fruitless contest, only exposed their own weakness. The decemviri were chosen ; but the election being made in the comitia by centuries, the consul Appius Claudius, and his colleague, were at the head of this important commission. The laws were framed, those celebrated statutes known by the name of the Twelve Tables, which are the basis of the great structure of the Roman jurisprudence, 451 B.C.

2. An acquaintance with these ancient laws is therefore of importance. Even in the most flourishing times of the republic, they continued to be of the highest authority. They have the encomium of Cicero himself ; and we learn from him, that to commit these laws to memory was an essential part of a liberal education. From the twelve tables the jurisconsulti composed a system of judicial forms, for the regulation of the different tribunals. The number of the laws was likewise from time to time increased

by the *Senatusconsulta*, *Plebiscita*, [and their judicial successors, until at length the Roman jurisprudence became so voluminous, as to occasion its being systematized and abridged to the form it has been handed down to us by the emperor Justinian].

3. The decemviri were invested with all the powers of government, for the consulate had ceased on their creation. Each decemvir by turn presided for a day, and had the sovereign authority, with its insignia, the fasces. The nine others officiated solely as judges in the determination of law-suits, and the correction of abuses. An abuse, however, of the most flagrant nature, committed by the chief of their own number, was destined speedily to bring their office to its termination.

4. Appius Claudius, inflamed by lawless passion for the young Virginia, the betrothed spouse of Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people, employed a profligate dependant to claim the maiden as his own property, on the false pretence of her being the daughter of one of his female slaves. The claim was made to the decemvir himself in judgment, who pronounced an infamous decree, which tore from her family this helpless victim, and put her into the hands of his own minion. Her father, to save the honour of his child, plunged a dagger into her breast; and the people, witnesses of this shocking scene, would have massacred Appius on the spot, had he not found means to escape amidst the tumult. Their vengeance, however, was satiated by the instant abolition of this hated magistracy, and by the death of Appius, who [according to Livy] chose by his own hand to prevent the stroke of the executioner. The decemvirate had subsisted for three years. The consuls were now restored, together with the tribunes of the people, 449 B.C.

XXVIII.—*Increase of the Popular Power.*

1. The scale of the people was daily acquiring weight, at the expense of that of the highest order. Two barriers, however, still separated the patricians and plebeians; the one, a law which prevented their intermarriage, and the other, the constitutional limitation of all the higher offices to the order of the patricians. It was now only necessary to remove these restraints, and the patricians and plebeians were on a footing of perfect equality. The

first, after a long but fruitless contest, was at length agreed to by the senate; and this concession had its usual effect of stimulating the people to inflexible perseverance in their struggle for the latter. On an emergence of war, the customary device was practised of refusing to enter the rolls, unless upon the immediate enactment of a law, which should admit their capacity of holding all the offices of the republic. The senate sought a palliative, by the creation of six military tribunes in lieu of the consuls, three of whom should be patricians, and three plebeians. This measure satisfied the people for a time: the consuls, however, were soon restored.

2. The disorders of the republic, and frequent wars, had interrupted the regular survey of the citizens. This was remedied by the creation of a new magistracy. Two officers, under the title of censors, were appointed (437 B.C.) whose duty was not only to make the *census* every five years, but to inspect the morals and regulate the duties of all the citizens; an office of dignity equal to its importance, exercised in the latter times of the republic only by consular persons, and afterwards annexed to the supreme function of the emperor.

3. The dissensions between the orders continued with little variation either in their causes or effects. The people generally, as the last resource, refused to enrol themselves till overawed by the supreme authority of a dictator. To obviate the frequent necessity of this measure, which enforced at best an unwilling and compelled obedience, the senate had recourse to a wise expedient; this was to give a regular pay to the troops. To defray this expense, a moderate tax was imposed in proportion to the fortunes of the citizens. From this period the Roman system of war assumed a new aspect. The senate always found soldiers at command; the army was under its control; the enterprises of the republic were more extensive, and its successes more signal and important. Veii, the proud rival of Rome, and its equal in extent and population, was taken by Camillus, after a siege of ten years, 391 B. C. The art of war was improved, as it now became a profession, instead of an occasional occupation. The Romans were, from this circumstance, an overmatch for all their neighbours. Their dominion, hitherto confined to the territory of a few miles, was now rapidly extended. It was impossible but the detached states of Italy must have

given way before a people always in arms, and who, by a perseverance alike resolute and judicious, were equal to every attempt in which they engaged.

4. The taking of Veii was succeeded by a war with the Gauls. This people, a branch of the great nation of the *Celtæ*, had opened to themselves a passage through the Alps at four different periods, and were at this time established in the country between those mountains and the Apennines. Under the command of Brennus, they laid siege to the Etruscan Clusium; and this people, of no warlike turn themselves, solicited the aid of the Romans. The circumstances recorded of this war with the Gauls throw over it a cloud of fable and romance. The formidable power of Rome is said to have been in a single campaign so utterly exhausted, that the Gauls entered the city without resistance, and burnt it to the ground, 385 B. C. [leaving nothing undestroyed but the capitol, which was garrisoned by the braver portion of the troops and inhabitants, who held out till Brennus was induced to accept a thousand pounds' weight of gold (about £45,000 sterling) as a ransom.] Though thus overpowered, the Romans, in a single engagement, retrieve all their losses, and in one day's time there is not a Gaul left remaining within the Roman territory.*

To the burning of the city by the Gauls, the Roman writers attribute the loss of all the records and monuments of their early history.

5. It is singular, that most of the Roman revolutions should have owed their origin to women. From this cause we have seen spring the abolition of the regal office and the decemvirate. From this cause arose the change of the constitution, by which the plebeians became capable of holding the highest offices of the commonwealth.

* There are several stories of the retreat of the Gauls; the one alluded to in the text, although not entirely free from improbability, is most generally adopted. Lactantius tells us a strange story of the Romans being admonished and directed in a dream by Jupiter, tutelary god of the capitol, to make all the corn they had into bread, and throw it into Brennus's camp, not reserving the least morsel of it for their necessities; and that the Gauls being hereby deceived, and despairing to reduce the Romans by famine, raised the siege. In memory of the god's favour, the Romans erected an altar to him, under the name of *Jupiter Pistor*, Jupiter the Baker. Another version of the affair is, that the Gauls were suddenly called home to defend their own country against the Veneti, who had invaded it, and that on their march thither, they were waylaid by a party of Romans, under Camillus, and so totally vanquished and destroyed, that not a man was left to carry home the news of the disaster.—E.D.

The younger daughter of Fabius Ambustus, married to a plebeian, envious of the honours of her elder sister, the wife of a patrician, stimulated her father to rouse the lower order to a resolute purpose of asserting their equal right with the patricians, to all the offices and dignities of the state. After much turbulence and contest, the final issue was the admission of the plebeians, first to the consulate, and afterwards to the censorship, the prætorship, and priesthood, 454 A.U.C., and 300 B.C.; a change beneficial in the main, as consolidating the strength of the republic, and cutting off the principal source of intestine disorder. The factions of the state had hitherto confined the growth of its power, its splendour, and prosperity; for no state can at once be prosperous and anarchical. We shall now mark the rapid elevation of the Roman name and empire.

XXIX.—*Conquest of Italy by the Romans.*

1. The war with the Samnites now began [343 B.C.], and was of long continuance; but its successful termination [290 B.C.] was speedily followed by the reduction of all the states of Italy. In the course of this important war, the Tarentines, the allies of the Samnites, sought the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, one of the greatest generals of his age. Pyrrhus landed in Italy with 30,000 men, and a train of elephants, 280 B.C. He was at first successful, but no longer so than till a short experience reconciled the Romans to a new mode of war. Sensible at length of the difficulties of his enterprise, and dreading a fatal issue, he embraced an invitation from the Sicilians to aid them in a war with Carthage. On this pretext, which at least was not dishonourable, Pyrrhus withdrew his troops from Italy. In this interval the Romans reduced the Samnites, the Tarentines, and the other allied states to extremity. Pyrrhus returned, and made a last effort near Beneventum. He was totally defeated, lost 26,000 men, and, abandoning at once all further views on Italy, returned with precipitation to his own dominions, 274 B.C. The hostile states submitted to the victorious power; and Rome, 480 years from the foundation of the city, was now mistress of all Italy.

2. The policy observed by the Romans, with respect to the conquered nations, was wise and judicious. They removed to Rome all the leading men of the principal

conquered cities, admitting these into the ancient urban and rustic tribes, and thus soothing the pride of the vanquished, by giving them an apparent share in their own domestic government; while, in arranging the constitution of the cities, they filled their magistracies with illustrious Romans, whose abilities and influence were fitted to maintain these new provinces in allegiance to the Roman government.

3. Sicily had long been considered as the granary of Italy. The Carthaginians at this time possessed very considerable settlements in the island, and were ambitious of acquiring its entire dominion. An obvious policy led the Romans to dispute with them this important acquisition, and gave rise to the Punic wars. This leads, by natural connexion, to a short view of the history of Carthage and of Sicily.

XXX.—*History of Carthage.**

1. Carthage, according to the most probable accounts, was founded by a colony of Tyrians, about 70 years before the building of Rome. The colony had the same language, the same or nearly similar laws and constitution, the same national character as the parent state. The city of Carthage was, at the period of the Punic† wars, one of the most splendid in the universe, and had under its dominion 300 of the smaller cities of Africa bordering on the Mediterranean sea.

2. The constitution of the republic is celebrated by Aristotle as one of the most perfect of the governments of antiquity; but we know little more than its general nature from ancient writers. Two magistrates, named *suffetes* [or judges], annually chosen, seem to have pos-

* The foundation of Carthage, is ascribed to Eliza, a Tyrian princess, better known by the name of Dido. Ithobal, king of Tyre, and father of the famous Jezebel, called in Scripture Ethbaal, was her great-grandfather. She married her near relation, Acerbas, called otherwise Sicharbas and Sichaeus, an extremely rich prince. Her brother, Pygmalion, king of Tyre, put Sichaeus to death in order that he might have an opportunity to seize his immense treasures, but Dido eluded the cruel avarice of the tyrant, by withdrawing secretly with all her dead husband's possessions. After having long wandered, she at last landed on the coast of the Mediterranean, in the gulf where Utica stood, and in the country of Africa, properly so called, distant almost 15 miles from Tunis, so famous at this time for its corsairs, and there settled with her followers, after having purchased some lands from the inhabitants of the country.—ROLLIN.

† So called from the Pœni, or Phœnicians, from whom the Carthaginians were descended.—EN.

essed powers akin to those of the Roman consuls; as did the Carthaginian senate to that of the senate of Rome; with this remarkable difference, that in the former, unanimity of opinion was requisite in all measures of importance. A divided senate [or council of 100] transmitted the business to the assembly of the people. A tribunal of 104 judges elected by the people generally, took cognizance of military operations and of the conduct of their generals. A superior council of five seems to have controlled the decisions of the larger tribunals. Two peculiarities of the Carthaginian policy have been censured by Aristotle. One was, that the same person might hold several employments or offices in the state; the other, that the poor were debarred from all offices of trust or importance. But the former of these is frequently both expedient and necessary, and the latter seems agreeable to the soundest policy; for in offices of trust, poverty offers too powerful an incitement to deviation from duty.

3. The first settlements made by the Carthaginians were entirely in the way of commerce. Trading to the coast of Spain for gold, they built Carthagéna and Gades; and coasting along the western shore of Africa, they had establishments for the same purpose as far as the 25th degree of N. latitude. The *Periplus* of Hanno* [or narrative of a Carthaginian voyage of discovery, written by Hanno the commander or admiral of the Carthaginian fleet], affords a proof of ardent enterprise and policy. Desirous of extending a limited territory, they armed against the Mauritanians, Numidians, and all the neighbouring nations: employing mercenary troops, which they levied not only in Africa, but in Spain, the Gauls, and Greece.

4. The annals of the Carthaginian state are but little known till their wars with the Romans. The first of their wars mentioned in history, is that with the Greek colonies in Sicily. Darius courted their alliance when he meditated the conquest of Greece, and Xerxes renewed that treaty when he followed out the designs of his father.

XXXI.—*History of Sicily.*

1. The early periods of the history of Sicily, are no less unknown than those of Carthage. The Phœnicians

* We learn from Pliny, that *Periplus* or voyages of discovery, were favorite objects of pursuit with the Carthaginians.—ED.

had sent colonies thither before the Trojan war. The Greeks, in after times, made considerable settlements in the island. The Corinthians founded Syracuse, which became the most illustrious of the Greek cities of Sicily; and from Syracuse arose afterwards Agrigentum, Acra, Casmene,* Camarene, and several other Sicilian towns.

2. The government of Syracuse was monarchical, and might long have remained so, had all its sovereigns inherited the abilities and virtues of Gélon [its first monarch.] But his successors, exercising the worst of tyranny, compelled their subjects at length to abolish the regal government; and their example was speedily followed by all the Grecian states of Sicily.

3. The monarchy of Syracuse, however, was revived about sixty years after, in the person of Dionysius, a man of obscure origin, but of signal ability. Twice expelled for a tyrannical exercise of dominion, he as often found means to overpower his enemies, and re-establish himself on the throne. At his death, the crown passed without opposition to his son, Dionysius the Younger, a weak and capricious tyrant, whom his subjects, judging unworthy to reign, dethroned and banished, 357 B.C. The crown was conferred on Dion, his brother-in-law: but this prince, whose amiable character rendered him the delight of his people, after a short reign fell a victim to treason. Aided by the distractions of Syracuse consequent on this event, Dionysius remounted the throne ten years after his expulsion; but his tyrannical disposition, heightened by his misfortunes, became at length so intolerable, that he was expelled a second time, 343 B.C., and banished to Corinth, where he ended his days in poverty and obscurity. The author of this revolution was the illustrious Timoleon, to whose abilities and virtues his country owed equally its liberty, and its subsequent happiness and prosperity. [Immediately after the banishment of Dionysius, Agathocles, a Sicilian of low birth but great talents, seized the supreme power. In the early part of his reign, he agreed to a peace which restored tranquillity to Sicily, but he soon infringed the articles of it, and declared war against the Carthaginians, who obtained a signal victory over him, and forced him to shut himself up in Syracuse. Agathocles, on finding himself deserted by his allies, adopted the bold resolution of car-

* Comiso.

rying the war into Africa, and appearing before the walls of Carthage, defeated their army, and nearly subverted their empire, but suffering a severe reverse of fortune, he meanly abandoned his army to the mercy of the enraged enemy and returned to Sicily, where he soon after died from the effects of poison. At this crisis, the Syracusans unable to resist the force of the Carthaginians, who now invested the city with a large fleet, and an army of 50,000 men, invited Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, to their assistance. Fortune at first favoured Pyrrhus, but he was at length compelled to evacuate Sicily. After the departure of Pyrrhus, the Syracusians conferred the crown upon Hiero, who carried on the war with some success against the Carthaginians; but now the Romans elated with their continuous successes, had for the first time crossed over into Sicily, with the evident intention of subduing it by the force of their arms, which so alarmed both the Syracusans and the Carthaginians, that, forgetting their former animosities, they united their forces with the intention of expelling the formidable invader; thus a rupture was caused between Carthage and Rome, which immediately led to the first Punic war.]

The signal opposition of natural character between the Romans and Carthaginians, may be easily accounted for, when we attend to the effects of a commercial life on the genius and manners of a nation. The vices of a commercial people are selfishness, cunning, avarice, with an absence of every heroic and patriotic virtue. The favourable effects of commerce, are industry, frugality, general courtesy of manners, improvement in the useful arts. Attending to these consequences of the prevalence of the commercial spirit, we shall see the principal features of the Carthaginian character opposed to the Roman.

XXXII.—*The Punic Wars.*

1. The triumph which the Romans had obtained over Pyrrhus, seemed to give assurance of success in any enterprise in which they should engage [see Section 29, § 1.] The Mamertines, a people of Campania, [a mercenary body of soldiers, who had been in the pay of Agathocles, and who now wished to settle in Sicily,] obtained aid from the Romans in an unjustifiable attempt which they made to seize Messina, a Sicilian town allied to Syracuse. The Syracusans, at first assisted by the Carthaginians, op-

posed this invasion ; but the former, more alarmed by the ambitious encroachments of the Carthaginians on Sicily,² soon repented of this rash alliance, and joined the Romans in the purpose of expelling the Carthaginians entirely from the island. In fact, the Sicilians seem to have had only the desperate choice of final submission either to Rome or Carthage. They chose the former as the alternative least dishonourable. The Romans had ever been their friends, the Carthaginians their enemies.

2. Agrigentum, possessed by the Carthaginians, was taken, after a long siege, by the joint forces of Rome and Syracuse, and a Roman fleet, the first they ever had [consisting of 120 vessels, formed after the model of a Carthaginian vessel, said to have been stranded on the coast of Italy], and equipped in a few weeks, gained a complete victory over that of Carthage, at this time the greatest maritime power in the world, 260 B.C. These successes were followed by the reduction of Corsica and Sardinia. In a second naval engagement, the Romans took from the Carthaginians 60 of their ships of war, and now resolutely prepared for the invasion of Africa. The consul Regulus commanded the expedition. He advanced to the gates of Carthage : and such was the general consternation, that the enemy proposed a capitulation. Inspired, however, by a timely aid of Greek troops under Xantippus, the Carthaginians made a desperate effort, and defeating the Roman army, made Regulus their prisoner. But repeatedly defeated in Sicily, they were at length seriously desirous of a peace ; and the Roman general was sent with their ambassadors to Rome to aid the negotiation, under a solemn oath to return to Carthage as a prisoner, should the treaty fail. It was rejected at the urgent desire of Regulus himself, who thus sacrificed his life to what he judged the interest of his country.*

3. Lilybæum, the strongest of the Sicilian towns belonging to Carthage, was taken after a siege of nine years. After some alternate successes, two naval battles won by the Romans, terminated the war ; and Carthage at last obtained a peace, on the humiliating terms of abandoning to the Romans all her possessions in Sicily, the payment

* Many of the ancient authors have asserted, that the Carthaginians put Regulus to death in a cruel manner ; but the truth of this statement is now much doubted ; most recent writers attribute his death to the miseries of imprisonment. → ED.

of 3,200 talents of silver, the restitution of all prisoners without ransom, and a solemn engagement never to make war against Syracuse or her allies. The island of Sicily was now declared a Roman province, though Syracuse maintained her independent government, A.U.C. 511, and B.C. 241. [Thus ended the first Punic war, after a severe contest, during a period of 24 years. In the course of this war, the Romans lost 700 gallies, and the Carthaginians about 500. The Romans now finding themselves at peace with all the world, shut the gates of the temple of Janus,—a ceremony which the continual succession of wars had hitherto prevented, from the reign of Numa down to the present time, a period of nearly 500 years.]

4. The peace between Rome and Carthage was of 23 years' duration. The latter power was recruiting her strength and meditating to revenge her losses and disgrace. The second Punic war began on the part of the Carthaginians, who besieged Saguntum, a city of Spain in alliance with the Romans. The young Hannibal took Saguntum, after a siege of seven months; the desperate inhabitants setting fire to the town, and perishing amidst the flames. Hannibal now formed the bold design of carrying the war into Italy. He provided against every difficulty, gained to his interest a part of the Gallic tribes, passed the Pyrenees, and finally the Alps,* in a toilsome march of five months and a half from his leaving Carthage; and arrived in Italy with 20,000 foot and 6000 horse.†

5. In the first engagement the Romans were defeated, and they lost two other important battles at Trébia and the lake Trasymenus. In the latter of these the consul Flaminius was killed, and his army cut to pieces. Hannibal advanced to Cannæ, in Apulia; and the Romans there opposing him with their whole force, a memorable defeat ensued, in which 40,000 were left dead upon the field, and amongst these the consul Æmilius, and almost the whole body of the Roman Knights. Had Hannibal taken advantage of this victory, by instantly attacking

* The passage of Hannibal over the Alps has been lately illustrated, in a most learned and ingenious essay, by Mr. Whittaker (the celebrated historian of Manchester, and vindicator of Queen Mary), who has, with great acuteness, traced every step of the Carthaginian general, from his crossing the Rhone to his final arrival in Italy.

† The numerical force is stated differently by other authorities.—ED

Rome the fate of the republic would have been inevitable ; but he deliberated, and the occasion was lost. The Romans concentrated all their strength, even the slaves armed in the common cause, and victory once more attended the standards of the republic. Philip [the second,] king of Macedon, joined his forces to the Carthaginians, but, defeated by Lævinus, speedily withdrew his assistance. Hannibal retreated before the brave Marcellus. Syracuse had now taken part with Carthage, and thus paved the way for the loss of her own liberty. Marcellus besieged the city, which was long defended by the inventive genius of Archimedes, but taken in the third year by escalade in the night [and Archimedes was slain by a common soldier]. This event put an end to the kingdom of Syracuse, which now became a part of the Roman province of Sicily, A.U.C. 542; B.C. 212.

6. While the war in Italy was prosperously conducted by the great Fabius, who, by constantly avoiding a general engagement, found the true method of weakening his enemy, the younger Scipio accomplished the entire reduction of Spain. Asdrubal was sent into Italy to the aid of his brother Hannibal, but was defeated by the consul Claudius, and slain in battle. Scipio, triumphant in Spain, passed over into Africa, and carried havoc and devastation to the gates of Carthage. Alarmed for the fate of their empire, the Carthaginians hastily recalled Hannibal from Italy. The battle of Zâma decided the fate of the war, by the utter defeat of the Carthaginians. They entreated a peace, which the Romans gave on the conditions :—That the Carthaginians should abandon Spain, Sicily, and all the islands [lying between Italy and Africa], surrender all their prisoners, give up the whole of their fleet except ten galleys, pay [within the period of fifty years] ten thousand talents, and, in future, undertake no war without the consent of the Romans, A.U.C. 552, B.C. 202.

7. Every thing now concurred to swell the pride of the conquerors, and to extend their dominion. A war with Philip [II.] of Macedon, was terminated by his defeat ; and his son Demétrius was sent to Rome as a hostage for the payment of a heavy tribute imposed on the vanquished. [Philip died shortly after this war, and was succeeded by his son Perseus, whose first act was to form an alliance with several of the Grecian states, to free themselves from the yoke of the Romans. A war en-

aned, which terminated in the total defeat of Perseus, and the reduction of Macedon into a Roman province]. A war with Antiochys, king of Syria, ended in his ceding to the Romans the whole of the Lesser Asia. But these splendid conquests, while they enlarged the empire, were fatal to its virtues, and subversive of the pure and venerable simplicity of ancient times.

8. The third Punic war began A.U.C. 605, B.C. 149, and ended in the ruin of Carthage. An unsuccessful war with the Numidians had reduced the Carthaginians to great weakness, and the Romans meanly laid hold of that opportunity to invade Africa. Conscious of their utter inability to resist this formidable power, the Carthaginians offered every submission, and consented even to acknowledge themselves the subjects of Rome. The Romans demanded 300 hostages, for the strict performance of every condition that should be enjoined by the senate. The hostages were given; and the condition required was, that Carthage itself should be rased to its foundation. Despair gave courage to this miserable people, and they determined to die in defence of their native city, B.C. 168. But the noble effort was in vain. Carthage [which at one time contained 700,000 inhabitants and had flourished for 1,000 years] was taken by storm, its inhabitants massacred, and the city burnt to the ground, [under Scipio, by birth, the son of Æmilianus Paullus, and by adoption, the grandson of Scipio Africanus], A.U.C. 607, B.C. 146.

9. The same year was signalized by the entire reduction of Greece under the dominion of the Romans. This was the era of the dawn of luxury and taste at Rome, the natural fruit of foreign wealth, and an acquaintance with foreign manners. In the unequal distribution of this important wealth, the vices to which it gave rise, the corruption and venality of which it became the instrument, we see the remoter causes of those fatal disorders to which the republic owed its dissolution.

XXXIII.—*The Gracchi and the Corruption of the Commonwealth.*

1. At this period arose Tibérius and Caius Gracchus, two noble youths, whose zeal to reform the growing corruptions of the state, precipitated them at length into measures destructive of all government and social order.

Tibérius, the elder of the brothers, urged the people to assert by force the revival of an ancient law, for limiting property in land, and thus abridging the overgrown estates of the patricians. [During this tribuneship he procured the constitution of the triumviri or public officers appointed to enquire into the state of the public lands applicable for agrarian division, and to report upon the violations of the Licinian law, which prohibited the occupation by any one person of more than 500 acres of public land, B.C. 132, and on the occasion of his seeking to be re-elected,] a tumult was the consequence, in which Tiberius, with 300 of his friends, were killed in the forum. This fatal example did not deter his brother Caius Gracchus from pursuing a similar career of zeal or of ambition. After some successful experiments of his power, while in the office of tribune, he directed his scrutiny into the corruptions of the senate, and prevailed in depriving that body of its constitutional control over all the inferior magistrates of the state. Employing, like his brother, the dangerous engine of tumultuary force, he fell a victim to it himself, with 3000 of his partisans, who were slaughtered in the streets of Rome [B.C. 120.] The tumults attending the sedition of the Gracchi were the prelude to those civil disorders which now followed in quick succession to the end of the commonwealth.

2. The circumstances attending the war with Jugurtha gave decisive proof of the corruption of the Roman manners. Jugurtha, grandson of Masinissa, sought to usurp the crown of Numidia by destroying his cousins, Hiempsal and Adherbal, the sons of the last king. He murdered the elder of the brothers; and the younger applying for aid to Rome, Jugurtha bribed the senate, who declared him innocent of all culpable act or design, and decreed to him the sovereignty of half the kingdom. This operated only as an incentive to his criminal ambition. He declared open war against his cousin, besieged him in his capital of Cirta, and finally put him to death. To avert a threatened war, Jugurtha went in person to Rome, pleaded his own cause in the senate, and once more by bribery* secured his acquittal from all charge of crimi-

* On his leaving Rome, by command of the senate, who were indignant at his having caused Masinissa to be assassinated, Sallust describes Jugurtha as remarking Rome to be "A venal city, and ready to fall if it could find a purchaser."

nality. A perseverance, however, in a similar train of conduct, finally drew on him the vengeance of the Romans; and being betrayed into their hands by his own father-in-law [Bocchus king of Mauritania], he was brought in chains to Rome, to grace the triumph of the consul Marius, confined in a dungeon, and starved to death, A.U.C. 651, B.C. 103.

3. The ambition of the allied states of Italy to attain the rights of citizenship produced the social war, which ended in a concession of those rights to such of the confederates as should return peaceably to their allegiance, B.C. 87. This war with the allies was a prelude to that which followed between Rome and her own citizens. Sylla and Marius, rivals, and thence enemies, were at this time the leaders of the republic. Sylla, commanding in a war against Mithridates was superseded, and recalled from Asia. He refused to obey the mandate; and found his army well disposed to support him. "Let us march to Rome," said they, with one voice; "lead us on to avenge the cause of oppressed liberty." Sylla accordingly led them on, and they entered Rome sword in hand: Marius and his partisans fled with precipitation from the city, and Sylla ruled for a while triumphant. But the faction of his rival soon recovered strength. Marius returning to Italy, and joining his forces to those of Cinna, his zealous partisan, laid siege to Rome; and while Sylla was engaged in the Mithridatic war, compelled the city to absolute submission. After a horrible massacre of all whom they esteemed their enemies, Marius and Cinna proclaimed themselves consuls, without the formality of an election; but Marius died a few days after in a fit of debauch [B.C. 86].

4. After a victorious campaign in Asia, Sylla returned to Italy [B.C. 83], and joined by Cethegus, Veres, and the young Pompey, gave battle to the party of his enemies, and entirely defeated them. His entry into Rome was signalised by a dreadful massacre, and a proscription which had for its object the extermination of every enemy whom he had in Italy. Elected dictator for an unlimited period [B.C. 81], he was now without a rival in authority, and absolute master of the government, which, of course, was substantially no longer a republic. In the exercise of his dominion he deserved more praise than in the means of acquiring it. He restored the senate to its judicial au-

thority, regulated the election to all the important offices of state, and enacted many excellent laws against oppression, and the abuse of power. Finally, he gave demonstration, if not of a pure conscience, at least of a magnanimous intrepidity of character, by voluntarily resigning all command, retiring to the condition of a private citizen, and offering publicly to give an account of his conduct. He died within a short time after his resignation [B.C. 77]:—a man certainly of great strength of mind, and who had some of the qualities of an heroic character; but he lived in evil times, when it was impossible at once to be great and to be virtuous.

5. The death of Sylla renewed the civil war. Lepidus, a man of mean abilities, aspired to succeed him in power; and Pompey, with superior talents, cherished the same ambition. While the latter was employed in the reduction of the revolted provinces of Asia, the conspiracy of Catiline threatened the entire destruction of Rome. It was extinguished by the provident zeal and active patriotism of the consul Cicero; and Catiline himself, with his chief accomplices, were attacked in the field, and defeated by Antonius. The traitor made a desperate defence, and died a better death than his crimes had merited.

6. Julius Cæsar now rose into public notice. Sylla dreaded his abilities and ambition, and had numbered him among the proscribed. "There is many a Mærius," said he, "in the person of that young man." He had learned prudence from the danger of his situation, and tacitly courted popularity without that show of enterprise which gives alarm to a rival. While Pompey and Crassus contended for the command of the republic, Cæsar, who knew that by attaching himself to either rival he would infallibly make the other his enemy, showed the reach of his talents by reconciling them, and thus acquiring the friendship of both. From favour to their mutual friend, they agreed to a partition of power, and thus was formed the first triumvirate. Cæsar was elected consul. He increased his popularity by a division of lands among the poorer citizens, and strengthened his interest with Pompey, by giving him his daughter in marriage. He had the command of four legions, and the government of Transalpine Gaul, and Illyria.

7. The military glory of the republic, and the reputation of Cæsar, were nobly sustained in Gaul. In the

first year of his government he subdued the Helvétii, who, leaving their own country, had attempted to settle themselves in the better regions of the Roman provinces. He totally defeated the Germans under Ariovistus, who had attempted a similar invasion. The Belgæ, the Nervii, the Celtic Gauls, the Suevi, Menapii, and other warlike nations, were all successively brought under subjection. In the fourth year of his government he transported his army into Britain. Landing at Deul, he was opposed by the natives with equal courage and military skill. He gained, however, several advantages, and binding the Britons to submission, withdrew on the approach of winter into Gaul. He returned in the following summer with a greater force, and prosecuting his victories, reduced a considerable portion of the island under the Roman dominion, B.C. 54. But the pressure of affairs in Italy suspended for a time the progress of the Roman arms in Britain.

Cæsar dreaded the abilities of Cicero, who had opposed him in his views of ambition. By the machinations of his partisans, while himself absent in Gaul, he procured the banishment of Cicero, and the confiscation of his estates, on the pretence of illegal measures pursued in the suppression of the conspiracy of Catiline. During an exile of 16 months in Greece, Cicero gave way to a despondency of mind utterly unworthy of the philosopher. Pompey had abandoned him, and this ungrateful desertion bore most heavily upon his mind: but Pompey himself, in the wane of his reputation, soon became desirous to prop his own sinking fortunes by the abilities of Cicero, and eagerly promoted his recall from exile. The death of Crassus, in an expedition against the Parthians, (B.C. 54) now dissolved the triumvirate; and Cæsar and Pompey, whose union had no other bond than interest [Julia, Cæsar's daughter whom Pompey had married, having died], began each to conceive separately the view of undivided dominion.

XXXIV.—*Progress of the civil Wars—second Triumvirate—and fall of the Republic.*

1. The ambition of Cæsar and of Pompey had now evidently the same object; and it seemed to be the only question in those degenerate times to which of these aspiring leaders the republic should surrender its liberties.

The term of Cæsar's government was near expiring ; but to secure himself against a deprivation of power, he procured a proposal to be made in the senate by one of his partisans, which wore the appearance of great moderation, namely, that Cæsar and Pompey should either both continue in their governments, or both be deprived of them, as they were equally capable of endangering the public liberty by an abuse of power. The motion passed ; and Cæsar immediately offered to resign, on condition that his rival should do so ; but Pompey rejected the accommodation ; the term of his government had yet several years' duration, and he suspected the proposal to be a snare laid for him by Cæsar. He resolved to maintain his right by force of arms, and a civil war was the necessary consequence. The consuls and a great part of the senate were the friends of Pompey. Cæsar had on his side a victorious army, consisting of ten legions, and the body of the Roman citizens, whom he had won by his liberality. Mark Antony and Cassius, at that time tribunes of the people, left Rome, and repaired to Cæsar's camp.

2. The senate, apprehensive of his designs, pronounced a decree, branding with the crime of parricide any commander who should dare to pass the Rubicon (the boundary between Italy and the Gauls) with a single cohort, without their permission. Cæsar infringed the prohibition, and marched straight to Rome. Pompey, to whom the senate committed the defence of the state, had no army. He quitted Rome, followed by the consuls and a part of the senate, and endeavoured hastily to levy troops over all Italy and Greece ; while Cæsar triumphantly entered the city amidst the acclamations of the people, seized the public treasury, and possessed himself of the supreme authority without opposition. Having secured the capital of the empire, he set out to take the field against his enemies, [and Pompey having previously resolved to abandon Italy, sailed from Brundisium to Greece, but] the lieutenants of Pompey still had possession of Spain. Cæsar marched thither, and subdued the whole country in the space of forty days. He returned victorious to Rome, where, in his absence, he had been nominated dictator. In the succeeding election of magistrates he was chosen consul, and thus invested, by a double title, with the right of acting in the name of the

republic. Pompey had by this time raised a numerous army, and Cæsar was anxious to bring him to a decisive engagement. He joined him in Illyria, [after enduring great hardships in crossing the sea] and the first conflict was of doubtful issue; but leading on his army to Macedonia, where he found a large reinforcement, he gave battle to Pompey in the field of Pharsalia, and entirely defeated him. 15,000 were slain, and 24,000 surrendered themselves prisoners to the victor, A. U. C. 705, B.C. 49.

3. The fate of Pompey was miserable in the extreme. With his wife Cornélia,* the companion of his misfortunes, he fled to Egypt in a single ship, trusting to the protection of Ptolemy, whose father had owed to him his settlement on the throne. But the ministers of this young prince, dreading the power of Cæsar, basely courted his favour by the murder of his rival. Brought ashore in a small boat by the guards of the king, a Roman centurion, who had fought under his own banners, stabbed him, even in the sight of Cornelia, and cutting off his head, threw the body naked on the sands. Cæsar pursued Pompey to Alexandria, where the head of that unhappy man, presented as a grateful offering, gave him the first intelligence of his fate. He wept, and turned with horror from the sight. He caused every honour to be paid to his memory, and from that time showed the utmost beneficence to the partisans of his unfortunate rival.

4. The sovereignty of Egypt was in dispute between Ptolemy and his sister Cleopatra. The latter, though married to her brother, and joint-heir by their father's will, was ambitious of undivided authority; and Cæsar, captivated by her charms, decided the contest in favour of the beautiful queen. A war ensued, in which Ptolemy was killed, and Egypt subdued by the Roman arms. In this war the famous library of Alexandria was burnt to ashes, B.C. 48. A revolt of the Asiatic provinces, under Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates, was signally chastised, and the report conveyed by Cæsar to the Roman senate in three words, "I came, I saw, I conquered." The conqueror returned to Rome, which needed his presence; for Italy was divided, and the partisans of Pompey were yet extremely formidable. His two sons, with Cato and Scipio, were in

* Cornelia, the widow of Crassus, who was slain in the Parthian war, was Pompey's second wife, his first wife Julia, daughter of Caius Julius Cæsar, died in childhood at Rome, B.C. 53.-- ED.

arms in Africa [Juba, King of Mauritania, having espoused their cause]. Cæsar pursued them thither, and proceeding with caution till secure of his advantage, defeated them in a decisive engagement at Thapsus. Scipio perished in his passage to Spain. Cato, shutting himself up in Uica, meditated a brave resistance; but finally, seeing no hope of success, he determined not to survive the liberties of his country, and fell deliberately by his own hand. Mauritania was now added to the number of the Roman provinces, and Cæsar returned to Rome absolute master of the empire. [He was decreed four triumphs, which were conducted with great magnificence; the first for his conquest of Gaul; the second for his victory over Ptolemy and Egypt; the third for the defeat of Pharnaces and Pontus; and the fourth for the defeat of Juba, King of Numidia. Appian says that the money carried in these triumphal processions, as the fruits of Cæsar's victories amounted to 65,000 talents, besides, 2822 crowns of gold, weighing together 20,414 Roman pounds.]

5. From that moment his attention was directed solely to the prosperity and happiness of the Roman people. He remembered no longer that there had been opposite parties; beneficent alike to the friends of Pompey as to his own. He laboured to reform every species of abuse or grievance. He introduced order into every department of the state, defining the separate rights of all its magistrates, and extending his care to the regulation of its most distant provinces. The reformation of the calendar, the draining of the marshes of Italy, the navigation of the Tiber, the embellishment of Rome, the complete survey and delineation of the empire, alternately employed his liberal and capacious mind. Returning from the final overthrow of Pompey's party in Spain, [whither Pompey's sons had escaped] he was hailed the father of his country, was created consul for ten years, and perpetual dictator. His person was declared sacred, his title henceforth *Imperator*, A.U.C. 709, B.C. 45.

6. The Roman republic had thus finally, by its own acts, resigned its liberties. They were not extinguished, as Montesque has well remarked, by the ambition of a Pompey or of a Cæsar. If the sentiments of Cæsar and Pompey had been the same as those of Cato, others would have had the same ambitious thoughts; and since the commonwealth was fated to fall, there never would

have been wanting a hand to drag it to destruction. Yet Cæsar had by force subdued his country; he therefore was a usurper; and had it been possible to restore the liberties of the republic, and with these its happiness, by the suppression of that usurpation, the attempt would have merited the praise at least of good designs. Perhaps so thought his murderers; and thus, however weak their policy, however base and treacherous their act, with many they will ever find apologists. They madly dreamed an impossible issue, as the event demonstrated.

7. A conspiracy was formed by 60 of the senators, at the head of whom were Brutus and Cassius: the former a man beloved of Cæsar, who had saved his life, and heaped upon him numberless benefits. It was rumoured that the dictator wished to add to his numerous titles that of king, and that the Ides of March was fixed on for investing him with the diadem. On that day [15 March], when taking his seat in the senate-house, he was suddenly assailed by the conspirators: he defended himself for some time against their daggers, till, seeing Brutus amongst the number, he faintly exclaimed, "And you, too, my son!" and, covering his face with his robe, resigned himself to his fate. He fell, pierced by 23 wounds, [in the 56th year of his age,] A.U.C. 711, B.C. 43.

8. The Roman people were struck with horror at the deed: they loved Cæsar, master, as he was of their lives and liberties. Mark Antony and Lepidus, ambitious of succeeding to the power of the dictator, resolved to pave the way by avenging his death. The people, to whom Cæsar by his testament had bequeathed a great part of his fortune, were penetrated with gratitude to his memory. A public harangue from Antony over the bleeding body, exposed in the forum, inflamed them with the utmost indignation against his murderers, who must have met with instant destruction had they not escaped with precipitation from the city. Antony profited by these dispositions; and the avenger of Cæsar, of course the favourite of the people, was in the immediate prospect of attaining a similar height of dominion. In this, however, he found a formidable competitor in Octávius, the grand-nephew and the adopted heir of Cæsar, who, at this critical moment, arrived in Rome. Availing himself of these titles, Octávius gained the senate to his interest, and divided with Antony the favour of the people. The rivals soon per-

ceived that it was their wisest plan to unite their interests; and they admitted Lepidus into their association, whose power, as Governor of Gaul, and immense riches, gave him a title to a share of authority. Thus was formed the second triumvirate, the effects of whose union were beyond measure dreadful to the republic. The triumviri divided among themselves the provinces, and cemented their union by a deliberate sacrifice made by each of his associates. Antony conigned to death his uncle Lucius, Lepidus his brother Paulus, and Octavius his guardian Toranius, and his friend Cicero. In this horrible proscription, 300 senators and 3000 knights were put to death.

9. Octavius and Antony now marched against the conspirators, who had a formidable army in the field in Thrace, commanded by Brutus and Cassius. An engagement ensued at Philippi, which decided the fate of the empire. Antony was victorious, for Octavius had no military talents; he was destitute even of personal bravery; and his conduct after the victory was stained with that cruelty which is ever the attendant of cowardice. Brutus and Cassius escaped the vengeance of their enemies by a voluntary death [42 B.C.]. Antony now sought a recompense for his troops by the plunder of the East. When in Cilicia, he summoned Cleopatra to answer for her conduct in dethroning an infant brother, and in openly favouring the party of Brutus and Cassius. The queen came to Tarsus, and made a complete conquest of the triumvir. Immersed in luxury and intoxicated with love, he forgot glory, ambition, fame, and every thing for Cleopatra; and Octavius saw this phrenzy with delight, as the preparative of his rival's ruin. He had nothing to dread from Lepidus, whose insignificant character first drew on him the contempt of his partisans; and whose folly, in attempting an invasion of the province of his colleague, was punished by his deposition and banishment.

10. Antony had in his madness lavished the provinces of the empire in gifts to his paramour and her children. The Roman people were justly indignant at these enormities; and the divorce of his wife Octavia, the sister of his colleague, was at length the signal of declared hostility between them. An immense armament, chiefly naval, came to a decisive conflict near Actium, on the coast of Epirus. Cleopatra, who attended her lover, de-

serted him with her galleys in the heat of the engagement ; and such was the infatuation of Antony, that he abandoned his fleet and followed her. After a contest of some hours, they yielded to the squadron of Octavius, A.U.C. 723, B.C. 31. The victor pursued the fugitives to Egypt ; and the base Cleopatra proffered terms to Octavius, including the surrender of her kingdom, and the abandonment of Antony. After an unsuccessful attempt at resistance, he anticipated his fate by falling on his sword. And Cleopatra soon after, either from remorse, or more probably from mortified ambition, as she found it was Octavius's design to lead her in chains to Rome to grace his triumph, had courage to follow the example of her lover, and put herself to death by the poison of an asp. Octavius [having reduced Egypt into a Roman province] returned to Rome, sole master of the Roman empire, A.U.C. 727, B.C. 27.

XXXV.—*Consideration on such Particulars as mark the Genius and National Character of the Romans.*

1. *System of Roman Education.*—A virtuous but rigid severity of manners was the characteristic of the Romans under their kings, and in the first ages of the republic. The private life of the citizens, frugal, temperate, and laborious, had its influence on their public character. The "paternal authority" gave to every head of a family a sovereign authority over all the members that composed it ; and this power, felt as a right of nature, was never abused. Plutarch has remarked, as a defect of the Roman laws, that they did not prescribe, as those of Lacedæmon, a system and rules for the education of youth. But the truth is, the manners of the people supplied this want. The utmost attention was bestowed in the early formation of the mind and character. The excellent author of the dialogue *De Oratoribus* (whether Quintilian or Tacitus) presents a valuable picture of the Roman education in the early ages of the commonwealth, contrasted with the less virtuous practice of the more refined. The Roman matrons did not abandon their infants to mercenary nurses. They esteemed those duties sacred, and regarded the careful nurture of their offspring, the rudiments of their education, and the necessary occupations of their household, as the highest points of female merit. Next to the

care bestowed in the instilment of virtuous morals, a remarkable degree of attention seems to have been given to the language of children, and to the attainment of a correctness and purity of expression. Cicero informs us, that the *Gracchi*, the sons of Cornelia, were educated, "not so much in the lap as in the language of their mother." That urbanity, which characterised the Roman citizens, showed itself particularly in their speech and gesture.

2. The attention to the language of the youth had another source. It was by eloquence more than by any other talent, that the young Roman could rise to the highest offices and dignities of the state. Forensic studies were, therefore, a principal object of the Roman education. Plutarch informs us, that among the sports of the children at Rome, one was, the pleading causes before a mock tribunal, and accusing and defending a criminal in the usual forms of judicial procedure.

3. The exercises of the body were likewise particularly attended to; whatever might harden the temperament, and confer strength and agility. These exercises were daily practised by the youth, under the eye of their elders, in the Campus Martius.

4. At seventeen the youth assumed the manly robe. He was consigned to the care of a master of rhetoric, whom he attended constantly to the forum, or to the courts of justice; for, to be an accomplished gentleman, it was necessary for a Roman to be an accomplished orator. The pains bestowed on the attainment of this character, and the best instructions for its acquisition, we learn from the writings of Cicero, Quintilian, and the younger Pompey.

XXXVI.—*Of the Progress of Literature among the Romans.*

1. Before the intercourse with Greece, which took place after the Punic wars, the Roman people were utterly rude and illiterate. As among all nations the first appearance of the literary spirit is shown in poetical composition, the Roman warrior had probably, like the Indian or the Celtic, his war songs which celebrated his triumphs in battle. Religion likewise employs the earliest poetry of most nations; and if a people subsists by agriculture, a plentiful harvest is celebrated in the rustic song of the husbandmen. The *Versus Fescennini*, mentioned by Livy, were probably of the nature of poetical dialogue, or alter-

nate verses sung by the labourers, in a strain of coarse merriment and raillery. This shows a dawning of the drama.

2. About the 390th year of Rome, on occasion of a pestilence, *Ludiones* (drolls or stage dancers) were brought from Etruria, "who dancing to the music of a flute, performed graceful movements in the Tuscan manner." Livy tells us that the Roman youth imitated these performances, and added to them rude and jocular verses, probably the Fescennine dialogues. It was not, however, till the year 514 A.U.C. that the regular drama was introduced at Rome from Greece by Livius Andronicus. The earliest Roman plays were therefore, we may presume, translations from the Greek. "After the Punic wars the quiet times began to inquire what Sophocles, Thespis and Æschylus might offer that was useful."

3. Of the early Roman drama, Ennius was a great ornament, and from his time the art made rapid advancement. The comedies of Plautus, the contemporary of Ennius, with great strength and spirit of dialogue, display a considerable knowledge of human nature, and are read at this day with pleasure.

4. Cæcilius improved so much on the comedy of Plautus, that he is mentioned by Cicero as perhaps the best of the Roman comic writers. Of his compositions we have no remains. His patronage fostered the rising genius of Terence, whose first comedy, the *Andria*, was performed A.U.C. 587. The merit of the comedies of Terence lies in that nature and simplicity which are observable alike in the structure of his fables, in the delineation of his characters, and in the delicacy and purity of the sentiments of his pieces. They are deficient, however, in comic energy; they are not calculated to excite ludicrous emotions. They are chiefly borrowed from the Greek of Menander and Apollodorus.

5. The Roman comedy was of four different species; the *Comædia Togata* or *Prætextata*, the *Comædia Tabernaria*, the *Atellanæ*, and the *Mimi*. The first admitted serious scenes and personages, and was of the nature of the modern sentimental comedy. The second was a representation of ordinary life and manners. The *Atellanæ* were pieces where the dialogue was not committed to writing, but the subject of the scene was prescribed, and the dialogue filled up by the talents of the actors. The

Mimi were pieces of comedy of the lowest species, farces, or entertainments of buffoonery, though sometimes admitting the serious and even the pathetic.

6. The Roman tragedy kept pace in its advancement with the comedy. The best of the Roman tragic poets were Actius and Pacuvius, of whom we have no remains. The tragedies published under the name of Seneca are generally esteemed the work of different hands. They are none of them of superlative merit.

• 7. Velleius Paterculus remarks, that the era of the perfection of Roman literature was the age of Cicero, comprehending all of the preceding times whom Cicero might have seen, and all of the succeeding who might have seen him. Cicero, Quintilian, and Pliny, celebrate, in high terms, the writings of the elder Cato, whose principal works were historical, and have entirely perished. We have his fragments, *de Re Rustica*, in which he was imitated by Varro, one of the earliest of the good writers among the Romans, and a man of universal erudition. Of the variety of his talents we may judge, not only from the splendid eulogium of Cicero, but from the circumstances of Pliny having recourse to his authority in every book of his Natural History.

8. Sallust, in order of time, comes next to Varro. This writer introduced an important improvement in history, as treated by the Greek historians, by applying (as Dionysius of Halicarnassus says) the science of philosophy, to the study of facts. Sallust is therefore to be considered as the father of philosophic history; a species of writing which has been so successfully cultivated in modern times. He is an admirable writer for the matter of his compositions, which evince great judgment and knowledge of human nature; but by no means commendable for his style and manner of writing. He affects singularity of expression, an antiquated phraseology, and a petulant brevity and sententiousness, which has nothing of the dignity of the historical style.

9 Cæsar has much more purity of style, and more correctness and simplicity of expression, but his commentaries, wanting that amplitude of diction and fulness of illustration which is essential to history, are rather of the nature of annals.

10. In all the requisites of an historian, Livy stands unrivalled among the Romans; possessing consummate

judgment in the selection of facts, perspicuity of arrangement, sagacious reflection, sound views of policy, with the most copious, pure, and eloquent expression. It has been objected, that his speeches derogate from the truth of history ; but this was a prevalent taste with the ancient writers ; and as those speeches are always known to be the composition of the historian, the reader is not deceived. As to the style of Livy, though in general excellent, we sometimes perceive in it, and most commonly in the speeches, an affectation of the pointed sentences (the *vibrantes sententiolæ*) and obscurity of the declaimers, which evinces the pernicious influence acquired by those teachers at Rome since the time of Cicero and Sallust.

11. In the decline of Roman Literature, Tacitus is an historian of no common merit. He successfully cultivated the method pointed out by Sallust, of applying philosophy to history. In this he displays great knowledge of human nature, and penetrates, with singular acuteness, into the secret springs of policy, and the motives of actions. But his fault is, that he is too much of a politician, drawing his characters after the model of his own mind ; ever assigning actions and events to preconceived scheme and design, and allowing too little for the operation of accidental causes, which often have the greatest influence on human affairs. Tacitus, in his style, professedly imitated that of Sallust ; adopting all the ancient phraseology, as well as the new idioms introduced into the Roman language by that writer. To his brevity and abruptness, he added most of the faults of the declaiming school. His expression, therefore, though extremely forcible, is often enigmatically obscure ; the very worst property style can possess.

12. Among the eminent Roman poets (after the dramatic) Lucretius deserves first to be noticed. He has great inequality, being at some times verbose, rugged, and perplexed, and at others displaying all the elegance as well as the fire of poetry. This may be in great part attributed to his subject. Philosophical disquisition is unsuitable to poetry. It demands a dry precision of thought and expression, rejecting all excursive fancy and ornament of diction. That luxuriance of imagery, which is the soul of poetry, is raving and impertinence when applied to philosophy.

13. Catullus, the cotemporary of Lucretius, is the earli-

est of the Roman lyric poets. His epigrams are pointed and satirical, but too licentious; his *Idyllia* tender, natural, and picturesque. He flourished in the age of Julius Cæsar.

14. In the succeeding age of Augustus, poetry attained to its highest elevation among the Romans. Virgil, Horace, Ovid, and Tibullus, were all cotemporaries. Virgil is allowed the same rank among the Roman poets as Homer among the Greek. If Homer excels him in the sublime, he surpasses the Greek in the elegant. The transcendent merits of Homer are sullied by occasional defects; Virgil is the model of a correct taste. The difference of manner in the *Bucolics*, the *Georgics*, and the *Æneid*, shows that Virgil was capable of excelling in various departments of poetry; and such is the opinion of Martial, who affirms, that he could have surpassed Horace in lyric poetry, and Varius in tragedy.

15. Horace excels as a lyric poet, a satirist, and a critic. In his *Odes* there is more variety than those of either Anacreon or Pindar; and he can alternately display the sublimity of the one, and the jocose vein of the other. His satires have that characteristic slyness and obliquity of censure, associated with humour and pleasantry which strongly distinguish them from the stern and cutting sarcasm of Juvenal. As a critic, his rules are taken chiefly from Aristotle; but they contain the elements of a just taste in poetical composition, and therefore do not admit of variation. The satires of Juvenal, compared with those of Horace, are deficient in facetiousness and urbanity; but they are superior in acuteness of thought, and in manly vigour of sentiment.

16. In variety of talent, without supreme excellence, and ease and elegance of numbers, no Roman poet has excelled Ovid. In his *Metamorphoses* particularly, with great fancy, we have specimens of the pathetic, the descriptive, the eloquent, and even the sublime. His *Elegies* have more of nature and of real passion than those of either Tibullus or Propertius. His amatory verses have much tenderness, but are too frequently loose, and even grossly licentious.

17. There is nothing more elegant than the compositions of Tibullus, nothing more delicate than the turn of his expression; but it is not the language of passion. The sentiments are tender, but their power of affecting the

heart is weakened by the visible care and solicitude of the poet for refined phraseology and polished numbers ; nor is there either much fancy or variety of thought. A single elegy exhibits the sentiments of the whole.

18. Martial is the last of the Roman poets who can be mentioned with high approbation. His Epigrams, independent of their art and ingenuity, are valuable as throwing light upon the Roman manners. He possesses, above every other poet, a naïveté of expression, which is chiefly observable in his serious Epigrams. He is well characterized by the younger Pliny, “ingenious and severe, and displaying in his writings much wit and satire tempered with candour.” (Epist. 3. 21.)

19. Luxuriance of ornament, and the fondness for point and brilliancy of thought and expression, are certain indications of the decline of good taste. These characters strongly mark the Latin poets of the succeeding ages. Lucan has some scattered examples of genuine poetic imagery, and Persius some happy strokes of animated satire ; but they scarcely compensate the affected obscurity of the one, and the bombast of the other. The succeeding poets, Statius, Silius Italicus, and Valerius Flaccus, in their attempts at the most difficult of all species of poetry, the Epic, have only more signally displayed the inferiority of their genius, and the manifest decay of the art.

XXXVII.—*State of Philosophy among the Romans.*

1. The Romans, in the earlier periods of the republic, had little leisure to bestow on the cultivation of the sciences, and had no idea of philosophical speculation. It was not till the end of the 6th century from the building of the city, and in the interval between the war with Perseus and the third Punic war, that philosophy made its first appearance at Rome. A few learned Achæans, banished from their country, had settled in various parts of Italy, and, applying themselves to the cultivation of literature and the education of youth, diffused a taste for those studies hitherto unknown to the Romans. The elder citizens regarded these pursuits with an unfavourable eye. Jealous of the introduction of foreign manners with foreign studies, the senate banished the Greek philosophers from Rome. But an Athenian embassy arriving soon after, brought thither Carneades and Critolaus, who

revived the taste for the Greek philosophy, and left behind them many able disciples, who publicly taught their doctrines.

2. It was natural that those symptoms should be most generally adopted which were most suitable to the national character. While the manners of the Romans had yet a tincture of ancient severity, the Stoical system prevailed. Scipio, Lælius, and the younger Cato rank among its chief partisans.

3. The philosophy of Aristotle was little known in Rome till the age of Cicero. Cratippus and Tyrannion* then taught his system with great reputation. Yet Cicero complains that the Peripatetic philosophy was little understood at Rome; and, on that account, sent his son to study its doctrines in the schools of Athens.

4. Lucullus, whose stay in Greece gave him an opportunity of being acquainted with all the different sects, disseminated, on his return to Rome, a very general taste for philosophy. His patronage of learned men, and his liberality in allowing his library to be open for the public use, contributed greatly to the promotion of literature.

5. The old and new academy had each its partisans. Of the former, which may be termed the Stoico-platonic, the most illustrious disciples were Marcus Brutus and Terentius Varro. To the philosophical talents of Brutus, and the universal erudition of Varro, the writings of Cicero bear the most ample testimony. Cicero himself must be deemed the most eminent of all the Roman philosophers. He is classed among the principal supporters of the new academy; though it seems rather to have been his purpose to elucidate the Greek philosophy in general, than to rank himself among the disciples of any particular sect.

6. The cultivation of physics, or natural philosophy, seems to have been little attended to either by the Greeks or Romans. Unless agriculture should be classed under this description, we know of no Roman authors, except Varro and the elder Pliny, who seem to have bestowed much attention on the operations of nature. The works of the former have perished, except a few fragments; but the natural history of Pliny is a most valuable storehouse of the knowledge of the ancients in physics, œconomics,

* Known also as Theophrastus.—ED.

and the arts and sciences. It is to be regretted that the style is unsuitable to the matter, being too frequently florid, declamatory, and obscure.

7. The philosophy of Epicurus was unknown in the early ages of the Roman commonwealth. It was introduced with luxury, and kept pace in its advancement with the corruption of manners. Cineas having discoursed on the tenets of Epicurus at the table of Pyrrhus, Fabricius exclaimed, May the enemies of Rome ever entertain such principles! Yet these principles were, in a short time from that period, but too current among her own citizens.

XXXVIII.—*Of the Public and Private Manners of the Romans.*

1. The manners of the Romans in the early ages of the republic were so different from those of the latter times, that one would be led to suppose some very extraordinary causes to have co-operated to produce so remarkable a change: yet the transition is to be accounted for. A spirit of temperance, frugality, and probity, is the characteristic of every infant establishment. A virtuous simplicity of manners, and a rigour of military discipline, paved the way for the extension of the Roman arms, and for their prodigious conquests: these conquests introduced wealth, luxury, and corruption.

2. In the early times, the patricians, when in the country, forgot the distinction of ranks, and laboured in the cultivation of their fields, like the meanest plebeians. We have the examples of Cincinnatus, Curius, the elder Cato, and Scipio Africanus. The town was visited only every ninth or market-day. In those times of virtuous simplicity, says Sallust, "good manners were cultivated both at home and in war.—By courage in war and equity in peace, they provided for the safety of themselves and the state." But when, in consequence of this very discipline and these manners, the Romans had extended their dominion, they imported with the wealth of the conquered nations, their tastes, their manners, and their vices.

3. The Romans had no natural taste for the fine arts. On the conquest of Greece, an immense field opened at once to their eyes, and the master-pieces of art poured in upon them in abundance. But their excellencies they could not appreciate. The Roman luxury, so far as the

arts were concerned, was in general displayed in an awkward, heavy, and tasteless magnificence.

4. The public and private life of the Romans will be best elucidated by a short account of the manner in which the day was passed at Rome, both by the higher and lower ranks of the people.* The morning hours were spent by a part of the citizens in visiting the temples; by others in attending the levees of the great. The *clients* waited on their *patroni*; the patricians visited each other, or paid their compliments to the leaders of the republic. Popularity was always the first object of ambition at Rome, as paving the way to all advancement. From the levee they proceeded to the forum, either to assist in the public business, or for amusement. There the time was spent till noon, the hour of dinner among the Romans, chiefly a very light repast, and of which it was not customary to invite any guests to partake. After dinner the youth repaired to the Campus Martius, where they occupied themselves in athletic exercises and sports till sunset. The elder class retired for an hour to repose, and then passed the afternoon in their porticoes, galleries, or libraries, where they enjoyed the conversation of their friends, or heard recitations of literary works: others repaired to the theatres, or to the shows of the circus and amphitheatre.

5. Combats of gladiators were introduced for the first time about the 490th year of the city, and soon became a most favourite amusement, as did the combats with wild beasts. The spirit of luxury, which in general is not unfavourable to humanity, showed its progress among the Romans by an increasing ferocity and inhumanity of the public spectacles. Theatrical entertainments were in high request. See *supra*, sect. 36. § 2—6. The taste for pantomime came to such a height, that the art was taught in public schools, and the nobility and people were divided into parties in favour of the rival performers: an abuse which called at length for the interposition of the laws.

6. From the porticoes, or from the theatre and amphitheatre, it was customary to go to the baths, of which there were many for the use of the public, while the rich had

* It is a curious fact, that for a period of nearly 500 years, the Romans, ignorant of the mode of dividing the day into hours, knew no other distinction but that of morning, noon, and evening. Pliny informs us that sun-dials were first used about the 477th year of Rome; and it was nearly a century later when Scipio Nasica introduced the water clock.—ED.

them in their own houses, vying with each other in this as in every other article of luxury or magnificence. From the bath they went immediately to supper, generally about the ninth or tenth hour, counting from sunrise. At table they reclined on couches. The luxury of the Roman suppers far exceeded every thing known among the moderns. An *antecœnium* of pickles and spices was presented to prepare and sharpen the appetite. Cookery became a science. The number and costliness of the dishes were incredible. The entertainment was heightened by every thing gratifying to the senses; by male and female dancers, musicians, pantomines, and even shows of gladiators.

7. In the end of the republic pleasure and amusement were the darling objects of all ranks of the citizens; they sought no more than *panem et circenses*.

XXXIX—Of the Art of War among the Romans.

1. From the prodigious success which attended the arms of the Romans, and that dominion they acquired over the greatest part of the known world, it seems a natural inference that they must have carried the military art to a higher degree of perfection than any other of the contemporary nations. Vegetius expressly assigns their extensive conquests to that cause alone. It is the discipline of an army that makes the multitude act as one man. It likewise increases the courage of troops; for each individual confides in the steady co-operation of his fellows.

2. From the constant practice of athletic exercises, the Romans were inured from infancy to hardiness and fatigue, and bred to that species of life which a soldier leads in the most active campaign in the field.

3. The levies were made annually, by the tribes called out, and divided into their respective number of centuries; each century presenting by rotation as many soldiers as there were legions intended to be raised; and the tribunes of the several legions taking their turn by rotation in the selection of the men presented by the centuries. (See *supra*, sect. 24, § 16.) The number of soldiers in the legion was various at different periods, from 3,000 to 10,000 and 11,000.

4. Among the ancient nations there were usually but two different arrangements of the troops in order of battle: the one the "phalanx," or close arrangement in parallelogram, intersected only by great divisions, a disposition

commonly used by the Greeks, and by most of the barbarous nations; the other, the "*quincunx*, or *chequer*," consisting of small companies or platoons, disposed in three straight lines, with alternate spaces between them equal to the space occupied by each company. In the first line were the *hastati*, in the second the *principes*, and in the third the *triarii*; on the flanks of the first line were the cavalry, likewise in detached companies; and in front of the line were the *velites*, or light-armed troops, who usually began by a skirmishing attack, and then were withdrawn to make way for the main body to come into action. The arms of the legion were, for the *hastati* and *principes*, the *pilum* or heavy javelin and the sword and buckler; and for the *triarii*, the long spear with the sword and buckler. The advantages of this arrangement were, that the line of battle could be three times formed with fresh troops, and that it was more fitted than any other for rapid changes of movement.

5. Notwithstanding these advantages, the *quincunx* went into disuse towards the end of the republic; and from that time various arrangements of the legion were used, according to circumstances. The tactic of the Romans is supposed to have been at its greatest pitch of excellence during the Punic wars. Hannibal was a great master of the science, and the Romans profited by the experience of his ability. The battle of Cannæ, as described by Polybius, affords signal evidence of the great talents of the Carthaginian general. That description has been misrepresented by Folard, but is accurately explained in the *Mémoires Militaires* of M. Guischart. Had the *quincunx* disposition been kept by the Roman army in that engagement, the event might have been very different, as it would have disappointed the effect of an artful manœuvre planned by Hannibal, on observing his enemy's army arranged in the unusual order of the phalanx.

6. The art of intrenchment was carried to great perfection by the Romans, particularly by Julius Cæsar. With 60,000 men he defended himself in his intrenchments before Alexia, while the lines of circumvallation were attacked by 240,000 Gauls, and the lines of countervallation by 80,000 without effect. These intrenchments consisted of a ditch from 9 to 15 feet in depth and width, fenced on the inside by the mound of excavated earth, and on the outside by strong stakes with pointed branches.

7. In besieging a town, several camps were formed around the place, joined to each other by lines of circumvallation and countervallation. A mound of earth (*agger*) was raised, beginning by a gentle slope from one of the camps, and gradually rising in elevation as it approached the city. The front, where the workmen were employed, was defended by a curtain of hides fixed on strong posts. On this mound the engines of attack, *catapultæ* for the discharge of heavy stones, and *balistæ* for arrows, were advanced till they played on the very spot which the besiegers wished to assail. The same machines were used by the besieged for annoying the enemy. When the batteries from the terrace had silenced those on the walls, the battering-ram (*aries*) was then brought up under a penthouse (*testudo*), and if it once reached the wall, was generally decisive of the fate of the town. The main object of the besieged was therefore to prevent its approach by every power of annoyance. Stones, darts, and combustible matters, were continually launched upon the assailants; and sometimes a mine was dug from the city to scoop away the terrace and all its engines. These arts of attack and defence of fortified places were in general use among the nations of antiquity, and continued down to modern times, till the invention of gunpowder.

8. The naval military art was utterly unknown among the Romans till the first Punic war. A Carthaginian galley was the first model; and in the space of two months they equipped a fleet of 100 galleys of five banks of oars, and 20 of three banks. The structure of these galleys and the mode of arranging the rowers, may be learned from the ancient sculptures and medals. The combatants at sea assailed at a distance with javelins, missile combustibles, and sometimes with *catapultæ* and *balistæ*; but the serious attack was made in boarding, when the vessels grappled together by means of a crane let down from the prow.

9 In the times of the empire, the Romans maintained their distant conquests not only by their armies, but by their fleets, which were moored in the large rivers and bays, and generally preserved a fixed station, as did the legions.

XI.—*Reflections Arising from a View of the Roman History during the Commonwealth.*

1. The history of all nations evinces, that there is an

inseparable connexion between the morals of a people and their political prosperity. But we have no stronger demonstration of this truth than the annals of the Roman commonwealth. To limit to republics alone the necessity of virtue as a principle, is a chimerical notion, fraught with dangerous consequences. "Of what avail are vain laws without morality," is a sentiment equally applicable to all governments whatever; and no political system, however excellent its fabric, can possess any measure of duration, without that powerful cement, virtue, in the principles and manners of the people. (*Supra*, sect. 19, § 4.)

2. The love of our country, and the desire for its rational liberty, are noble and virtuous feelings, and their prevalence is ever a test of the integrity of the national morals. But there is no term which has been more prostituted than the word liberty. Among a corrupted people, the cry for liberty is heard the loudest among the most profligate of the community. With these its meaning has no relation to patriotism; it imports no more than the aversion to restraint; and the personal character of the demagogue, and the private morals of his disciples are always sufficient to unmask the counterfeit. The spirit of patriotism and a general corruption of manners cannot possibly be co-existent in the same age and nation.

3. On the other hand, while the morals of a people are pure, no public misfortune is irretrievable, nor any political situation so desperate, that hope may not remain of a favourable change. In such a crisis, the spirit of patriotism pervading all ranks of the state will soon recover the national prosperity. The history of the Roman people, and that of the Grecian states, in various crises, both of honour and of disgrace, afford proofs alike of this position and of its converse.

4. The national character of the Romans seems to have undergone its most remarkable change for the worse from the time of the destruction of their rival Carthage. Sallust assigns the cause: "Before the destruction of Carthage, the fear of the enemy kept the citizens within the bounds of propriety. But when that fear vanished, licentiousness and pride, the usual attendants of prosperity, took possession of them."

5. In the last ages of the commonwealth, avarice and ambition, unrestrained by moral principle, were the chief motives of the Roman conquests. It was sufficient reason for going to war, that a country offered a tempting object

to the rapacity and ambition of the military leaders. The conquest of Italy paved the way for the reduction of foreign nations. Hence the Romans imported, with their wealth, the manners, the luxuries, and the vices of the nations they subdued. The generals returned not as formerly, after a successful war, to the labours of the field, and to a life of temperance and industry. They were now the governors of kingdoms and provinces; and at the period of their command abroad, disdaining the restraints of a subject, they could be satisfied with nothing less than sovereignty at home. The armies, debauched by the plunder of kingdoms, were completely disposed to support them in all their schemes of ambition; and the populace, won by corruption, always took part with the chief who best could pay for their favour and support. Force or bribery overruled every election; and the inhabitants of distant states, now holding the rights of citizens, were brought to Rome at the command of the demagogue, to influence any popular contest, and turn the scale in his favour. In a government thus irretrievably destroyed, by the decay of those springs which supported it, it was of little consequence by the hands of what particular tyrant, usurper, or demagogue its ruin was finally accomplished.

6. From the consideration of the rise and fall of the principal states of antiquity, it has been a commonly received observation; that the constitution of empires has, like the human body, a period of growth, maturity, decline, and extinction. But arguments from analogy are extremely deceiving, and particularly so when the analogy is from physical to moral truths. The human body is, from its fabric, naturally subject to decay, and is perpetually undergoing a change from time. The organs, at first weak, attain gradually their perfect strength, and thence, by a similar gradation, proceed to decay and dissolution. This is an immutable law of its nature. But the springs of the body politic do not necessarily undergo a perpetual change from time. It is not regularly progressive from weakness to strength, and thence to decay and dissolution; nor is it under the influence of any principle of corruption which may not be checked, and even eradicated, by wholesome laws. Thus the beginning of the corruption of Sparta is attributed to the breach by Lysander of the institutions of Lycurgus, in introducing gold into the treasury of the state, instead of her iron

money. But was this a necessary or an unavoidable measure? Perhaps a single vote in the senate decreed its adoption; and therefore another suffrage might have saved or long postponed the downfall of the commonwealth. The Roman republic owed its dissolution to the extension of its dominions. Had it been a capital crime for any Roman citizen to have proposed to carry the arms of the republic beyond the limits of Italy, its constitution might have been preserved for many ages beyond the period of its actual duration. "Accustom your mind," said Phocion to Aristias, "to discern, in the fate of nations, that recompense which the great Author of nature has annexed to the practice of virtue. No state ever ceased to be prosperous, but in consequence of having departed from those institutions to which she owed her prosperity." History indeed has shown, that all states and empires have had their period of duration; but history, instructing us in the causes which have produced their decline and downfall, inculcates also this salutary lesson, that they themselves are, in general the masters of their destiny, and that all nations may, and most certainly ought to, aspire at immortality.

7. It was a great *desideratum* in ancient politics, that a government should possess within itself the power of periodical reformation; a capacity of checking any overgrowth of authority in any of its branches, and of winding up the machine, or bringing back the constitution to its first principles. To the want of such a power in the states of antiquity, which was ineffectually endeavoured to be supplied by such partial contrivances as the Ostracism and Petalism [*supra*, sect. 10, § 9], we may certainly ascribe in no small degree the decay of those states; for in their governments, when the balance was once destroyed, the evil grew worse from day to day, and admitted of no remedy but a revolution, or entire change of the system. The British constitution possesses this inestimable advantage over all the governments both of ancient and of modern times. Besides the perpetual power of reform vested in parliament, the constitution may be purified of every abuse, and brought back to its first principles, at the commencement of every reign. But of this we shall afterwards treat in its proper place.

XLI.--*Rome under the Emperors.*

1. The battle of Actium decided the fate of the commonwealth, and Octavius, now named Augustus, was master of the Roman empire. He possessed completely the sagacity of discerning what character was best fitted for gaining the affections of the people he governed, and the versatility of temper and genius to assume it. His virtues, though the result of policy, not of nature, were certainly favourable to the happiness, and even to the liberties of his subjects. The fate of Cæsar warned him of the insecurity of a usurped dominion; and therefore, while he studiously imitated the engaging manners and clemency of his great predecessor, he affected a much higher degree of moderation and respect for the rights of the people.

2. The temple of Jānus was shut, which had been open for 188 years since the beginning of the second Punic war; an event productive of universal joy. "The Romans (say Condillac) now believed themselves a free people, since they had no longer to fight for their liberty." The sovereign kept up this delusion by maintaining the ancient forms of the republican constitution in the election of magistrates, &c. though these were nothing more than forms. He even pretended to consider his own function as merely a temporary administration for the public benefit. Invested with the consulate and censorship, he went through the regular forms of periodical election to those offices: and at the end of the seventh year of his government, actually announced to the senate his resignation of all authority. The consequence was a general supplication of the senate and people, that he would not abandon the republic, which he had saved from destruction. "Since it must be so (said he), I accept the empire for ten years, unless the public tranquillity should before that time permit me to enjoy that retirement I passionately long for." He repeated the same mockery five times in the course of his government, accepting the administration sometimes for ten, and sometimes only for five years.

3. It was much to the credit of Augustus, that in the government of the empire he reposed unlimited confidence in Mæcenas, a most able minister, who had sincerely at heart the interest and happiness of the people. It was by his excellent counsels that all public affairs were conducted, and the most salutary laws enacted for the remedy

of public grievances, and even the correction of the morals of the people. It was to his patronage that literature and the arts owed their encouragement and advancement. It was by his influence and wise instructions that Augustus assumed those virtues to which his heart was a stranger, and which, in their tendency to the happiness of his subjects, were equally effectual as if the genuine fruits of his nature.

4. On the death of Marcellus, the nephew and son-in-law of Augustus, (23 B.C.) a prince of great hopes, the Emperor bestowed his chief favour on Marcus Agrippa, giving him his daughter Julia, the widow of Marcellus, in marriage. Agrippa had considerable military talents, and was successful in accomplishing the reduction of Spain, and subduing the revolted provinces of Asia. Augustus associated him with himself in the office of censor, and would probably have given him a share of the empire; but the death of Agrippa occasioned a new arrangement. The daughter of Augustus now took for her third husband Tiberius, who became the son-in-law of the emperor by a double tie, for Augustus had previously married his mother Livia. This artful woman, removing all of the imperial family who stood betwixt her and the object of ambition, thus made room for the succession of her son Tiberius, who, on his part, bent all his attention to gain the favour and confidence of Augustus. On the return of Tiberius from a successful campaign against the Germans, the people were made to solicit the emperor to confer on him the government of the provinces and the command of the armies. Augustus now gradually withdrew himself from the cares of the empire. He died soon after at Nola in Campania, in the 76th year of his age, and 44th of his imperial reign, 767 A.U.C. and A.D. 14.

5. A considerable part of the lustre thrown on the reign of Augustus is owing to the splendid colouring bestowed on his character by the poets and other authors who adorned his court, and repaid his favours by their adulation. Assuredly other sovereigns of much higher merits have been less fortunate in obtaining the applause of posterity: "They pass on unlamented and unknown in long obscurity, because no inspired poet celebrates their deeds."

One great event distinguished the reign of Augustus, the birth of our Lord and Saviour JESUS CHRIST, which, according to the best authorities, happened in the 754th

year A.U.C. and four years before the vulgar date of the Christian era *.

6. Augustus had named Tiberius† his heir, together with his mother Livia, and substituted to them Drusus, the son of Tiberius, and Germanicus. Tiberius was vicious, debauched, and cruel; yet the very dread of his character operated in securing an easy succession to the empire. An embassy from the senate entreated him to accept the government, which he modestly affected to decline, but suffered himself to be won by their supplications. Notwithstanding this symptom of moderation, it soon appeared that the power enjoyed by his predecessor was too limited for the ambition of Tiberius. It was not enough that the substance of the republic was gone, the very appearance of it was now to be demolished. The people were no longer assembled, and the magistrates of the state were supplied by the imperial will.

7. Germanicus, the nephew of Tiberius, became the object of his jealousy, from the glory he had acquired by his military exploits in Germany, and the high favour in which he stood with the Roman people. He was recalled in the midst of his successes, and dispatched to the oriental provinces, where he soon after died, as was generally believed, of poison administered by the emperor's command.

8. Aelius Sejanus, præfect of the prætorian guards, the favourite counsellor of Tiberius, and the obsequious minister of his tyranny and crimes, conceived the daring project of a revolution, which should place himself on the throne by the extermination of the whole imperial family. Drusus, the son of the emperor, was cut off by poison. Agrippina, the widow of Germanicus, with the elder of her sons, was banished, and the younger confined in prison. Tiberius himself was persuaded by Sejanus, under the pretence of the discovery of plots for his assassination, to retire from Rome to the Isle of Capræ, and devolve the government upon his faithful minister. But while Sejanus, thus far successful, meditated the last step to the accomplishment of his wishes, by the murder of his sovereign, his treason was detected; and the emperor dis-

* *Vide* Dr. Playfair's *System of Chronology*, pp. 49, 50, a work of great research and accuracy, and by far the best on that subject.

† His name was Tiberius Claudius Nero, but after his adoption he was called Augustus Tiberius Cæsar.—Ed

patched his mandate to the senate, which was followed by his immediate sentence and execution.

The public indignation was not satisfied with his death: the populace tore his body to pieces, and flung it into the Tiber.

9. Tiberius now became utterly negligent of the cares of government, and the imperial power was displayed only in public executions, confiscations, and scenes of cruelty and rapine. At length the tyrant falling sick, was strangled in his bed by Macro, the præfect of the prætorian guards, [at Caprææ, the scene of his vicious sensualities,] in the 78th year of his age, and 23rd of his reign.

10. In the 18th year of Tiberius, our Lord and Saviour JESUS CHRIST, the Divine Author of our religion, suffered death upon the cross, a sacrifice and propitiation for the sins of mankind, A.D. 33.

11. Tiberius had nominated for his heir Caligula* [Caius], the son of Germanicus, his grandson by adoption, and joined with him Tiberius, the son of Drusus, his grandson by blood. The former enjoyed, on his father's account, the favour of the people; and the senate to gratify them set aside the right of his colleague, and conferred on him the empire undivided. The commencement of his reign was signalized by a few acts of clemency and even good policy. He restored the privileges of the comitia, and abolished arbitrary prosecutions for crimes of state. But, tyrannical and cruel by nature, he substituted military execution for legal punishment.† The provinces were loaded with the most oppressive taxes, and daily confiscations filled the imperial coffers. The follies and absurdities of Caligula were equal to his vices, and it is hard to say whether he was most the object of hatred or of contempt to his subjects. He perished by assassination in [one of the passages of his own palace by the hand of Chaerea, captain of the prætorian or body guard] in the 4th year of his reign, and 29th of his age, A.U.C. 794, A.D. 42.

12. Claudius, the uncle of Caligula, was saluted emperor by the prætorian guards, who had been the murderers of his nephew. He was the son of Octavia, the sister of Augustus; a man of weak intellects, and of no education; yet his short reign was marked by an enter-

* So called from the military greaves or boots he wore.—ED.

† It has been observed, that his intellects were disordered from the effects of a sickness with which he was affected shortly after his accession to the empire.—ED

prise of importance. He undertook the reduction of Britain; and, after visiting the island in person, left his generals Plautius and Vespasian to prosecute a war which was carried on for several years with various success. The Silures or inhabitants of South Wales, under their king Caractacus [Caradoc,] made a brave resistance, but were finally defeated, and Caractacus led captive to Rome, where the magnanimity of his demeanour procured him respect and admiration.

13. The civil administration of Claudius was weak and contemptible. He was the slave even of his domestics, and the dupe of his infamous wives, Messalina and Agrippina. The former, abandoned to the most shameful profligacy, was at length put to death on suspicion of treasonable designs. The latter, who was the daughter of Germanicus, bent her utmost endeavours to secure the succession to the empire to her son Domitius Ahenobarbus, and employed every engine of vice and inhumanity to remove the obstacles to the accomplishment of her wishes. Having at length prevailed on Claudius to adopt her son [Domitius (Nero)], and confer on him the title of Cæsar, to the exclusion of his own son Britannicus, she now made room for the immediate elevation of Domitius by poisoning her husband. Claudius was put to death [by poison] in the 15th year of his reign and 63rd of his age.

SECT. XLII.

1. The son of Agrippina assumed the name of Nero Claudius. He had enjoyed the benefit of a good education under the philosopher Seneca, but reaped from his instructions no other fruit than a pedantic affectation of taste and learning, with no real pretension to either. While controlled by his tutor Seneca, and by Burrhus, captain of the prætorian guards, a man of worth and ability, Nero maintained for a short time a decency or public conduct; but the restraint was intolerable, and nature soon broke out. His real character was a compound of every thing that is base and inhuman. In the murder of his mother Agrippina, he revenged the crime she had committed in raising him to the throne; he rewarded the fidelity of Burrhus by poisoning him; and as a last kindness to his tutor Seneca, he allowed him to choose the mode of his death. It was his darling amusement to exhibit on the stage and amphitheatre as an actor,

musician, or gladiator. At length, become the object of universal hatred and contempt, a rebellion of his subjects, headed by [Julius] Vindex, an illustrious Gaul, hurled this monster from the throne. He had not courage to attempt resistance; and a slave, at his own request, dispatched him with a dagger. Nero perished in the 30th year of his age, after a reign of 14 years, A.D. 69 [and with him terminated the Julian family].

2. Galba, the successor of Nero, was of an ancient and illustrious family. He was in the 73rd year of his age when the senate, ratifying the choice of the prætorian bands, proclaimed him emperor. But an impolitic rigour of discipline soon disgusted the army; the avarice of his disposition, grudging the populace their favourite games and spectacles, deprived him of their affections; and some iniquitous prosecutions and confiscations excited general discontent and mutiny. Galba adopted and designed for his successor the able and virtuous Piso; a measure which excited the jealousy of Otho, his former favourite, and led him to form the daring plan of raising himself to the throne by the destruction of both. He found the prætorians apt to his purpose; they proclaimed him emperor, and presented him, as a grateful offering, the heads of Galba and Piso, who were slain in quelling the insurrection. Galba had reigned seven months; "he seemed greater than a private man," says Tacitus, "while he was only a private man, and, until he reigned, appeared to all fit to reign."

3. Otho had a formidable rival in Vitellius, who had been proclaimed emperor by his army in Germany. It is hard to say which of the competitors was, in point of abilities, the more despicable, or in character the more infamous. A decisive battle was fought at Bedriachum, near Mantua, where the army of Otho was defeated, and their commander, in a fit of despair, ended his life by his own hand, after a reign of three months, A.D. 70.

4. The reign of Vitellius was of eight months duration. He is said to have proposed Nero for his model, and it was just that he should resemble him in his fate. Vespasian, who had obtained from Nero the charge of the war against the Jews, which he had conducted with ability and success, was proclaimed emperor by his troops in the East; and a great part of Italy submitting to his generals, Vitellius meanly capitulated to save his life by a resignation of the empire. The people, indignant at

his dastardly spirit, compelled him to an effort of resistance, but the attempt was fruitless, [and caused a tumult in which many perished, and the capital was destroyed by fire]. Primus, one of the generals of [the Syrian army of] Vespasian took possession of Rome, and Vitellius was massacred, and his body flung into the Tiber. [A.D. 69.]

5. Vespasian, though of mean descent, was worthy of the empire, and reigned with high popularity for ten years. He possessed great clemency of disposition; his manners were affable and engaging, and his mode of life was characterised by simplicity and frugality. He respected the ancient forms of the constitution, restored the senate to its deliberative rights, and acted by its authority in the administration of all public affairs. The only blemish in his character was a tincture of avarice; and even that is greatly extenuated by the laudable and patriotic use which he made of his revenues. Under his reign, and by the arms of his son Titus, was terminated the war against the Jews. They had been brought under the yoke of Rome by Pompey, who took Jerusalem. Under Augustus they were governed for some time by Herod as viceroy; but the tyranny of his son Archeläus was the cause of his banishment, and the reduction of Judea into the ordinary condition of a Roman province [dependent on the prefecture of Syria]. Rebelling on every slight occasion, Nero had sent Vespasian to reduce them to order, and he had just prepared for the siege of Jerusalem, when he was called to Rome to assume the government of the empire. Titus wished to spare the city, and tried every means to prevail on the Jews to surrender: but in vain; their ruin was decreed by Heaven. After an obstinate blockade of six months, Jerusalem was taken by storm, the temple burnt to ashes, and the city buried in ruins. The Roman empire was now in profound peace. Vespasian [shut the temple of Janus,] associated Titus in the imperial dignity, and soon after died, universally lamented, at the age of 69, A.D. 79.

6. The character of Titus was humane, munificent, dignified, and splendid. His short reign was a period of great happiness and prosperity to the empire, and his government a constant example of virtue, justice, and beneficence. In his time [A.D. 79, August 24,] happened that dreadful eruption of Vesuvius, which overwhelmed the cities of Herculaneum, Pompeii, [and Stabiae;

Rome, also, was devastated by fire, and a short time afterwards by a destructive plague]; the public losses, from these calamities he repaired by the sacrifice of his fortune and revenues. He died in the 3rd year of his reign, and 40th of his age, ever to be remembered by that most exalted epithet, "The delight of mankind."

7. Domitian, the brother of Titus, and suspected of murdering him by poison, succeeded to the empire, A.D. 81. He was a vicious and inhuman tyrant. A rebellion in Germany gave him occasion to signalize the barbarity of his disposition; and its consequences were long felt in the sanguinary punishments inflicted under the pretence of justice. The prodigal and voluptuous spirit of this reign was a singular contrast to its tyranny and inhumanity. The people were loaded with insupportable taxes to furnish spectacles and games for their amusement. The successes of Agricola in Britain [A.D. 85] threw a lustre on the Roman arms, no part of which reflected on the Emperor, for he used this eminent commander with the basest ingratitude. After fifteen tedious years, this monster fell at last the victim of assassination, the Empress herself conducting the plot for his murder, A.D. 96.

8. Cocceius Nerva, a Cretan by birth, was chosen Emperor by the senate, from respect to the virtues of his character; but too old for the burden of government, and of a temper too placid for the restraint of rooted corruptions and enormities, his reign was weak, inefficient, and contemptible. His only act of real merit as a sovereign, was the adoption of the virtuous Trajan as his successor. Nerva died, after a reign of 16 months, A.D. 98.

9. Ulpius Trajanus possessed every talent and every virtue that can adorn a sovereign. Of great military abilities, and an indefatigable spirit of enterprise, he raised the Roman arms to their ancient splendour, and greatly enlarged the boundaries of the empire. He subdued the Dacians, conquered the Parthians, and brought under subjection Assyria, Mesopotamia, and Arabia Felix. Nor was he less eminent in promoting the happiness of his subjects, and the internal prosperity of the empire. His largesses were humane and munificent. He was the friend and support of the virtuous indigent, and the liberal patron of every useful art and talent. His bounties were supplied by a well judged economy in his private fortune, and a wise administration of the public finances.

In his own life he was a man of simple manners, modest, affable, fond of the familiar intercourse of his friends, and sensible to all the social and benevolent affections; in a word, meriting the surname universally bestowed on him, *Trajanus Optimus*. He died at the age of 63, after a glorious reign of 19 years, A.D. 118.

10. *Ælius Adrianus*, nephew of Trajan, and worthy to fill his place, was chosen Emperor by the army in the East, and his title was acknowledged by all orders of the state. He adopted a policy different from that of his predecessor; and, judging the limits of the empire too extensive, abandoned all the conquests of Trajan, bounding the eastern provinces by the Euphrates. He visited in person the whole provinces of the empire, reforming, in his progress, all abuses, relieving his subjects of every oppressive burden, rebuilding the ruined cities,* and establishing everywhere a regular and mild administration under magistrates of approved probity and humanity. He gave a discharge to the indigent debtors of the state, and appointed liberal institutions for the education of the children of the poor. To the talents of an able politician, he joined an excellent taste in the liberal arts; and his reign, which was of 22 years' duration, was an era both of public happiness and splendour. [But it must be confessed, that during the last days of his reign, many eminent men were sacrificed to his tyrannical suspicions]. In the last year of his life he bequeathed to the empire a double legacy, by adopting and declaring for his immediate successor Titus Aurelius Antoninus, and substituting Annianus Verus to succeed upon his death. These were the Antonines, who for 40 years ruled the Roman empire with consummate wisdom, ability, and virtue. Adrian died, A.D. 138, at the age of 62.

XLIII.—*Age of the Antonines, &c.*

1. The happiest reigns furnish the fewest events for the pen of history. Antoninus was the father of his people. He preferred peace to the ambition of conquest; yet in every necessary war the Roman arms had their wonted renown. The British provinces were enlarged by the con-

* He founded a colony at Jerusalem, under the name of *Ælia Capitolina*, and by introducing idolatry he provoked the remnant of the Jews to revolt for the third time, who were, after a three years' war, nearly exterminated [A.D. 135].—Ed.

quests of Urbicus, and some formidable rebellions were subdued in Germany, Dacia, and the East. The domestic administration of the sovereign was dignified, splendid, and humane. With all the virtues of Numa, his love of religion, peace, and justice, he had the superior advantage of diffusing these blessings over a great portion of the world. He died at the age of 74, after a reign of 22 years, A.D. 161.

2. Annii Verus assumed, at his accession, the name of Marcus Aurélius Antoninus,* and he bestowed on his brother Lucius Vêrus a joint administration of the empire. The former was as eminent for the worth and virtue of his character, as the latter was remarkable for profligacy, meanness, and vice. Marcus Aurélius was attached both by nature and education to the Stoical philosophy, which he has admirably taught and illustrated in his *Meditations*; and his own life was the best commentary on his precept. The Parthians were repulsed in an attack upon the empire, and a rebellion of the Germans was subdued. In these wars the mean and worthless Vêrus brought disgrace upon the Roman name in every region where he commanded; but fortunately relieved the empire of its fears by an early death. [A.D. 171.] The residue of the reign of Marcus Aurélius was a continued blessing to his subjects. He reformed the internal policy of the state, regulated the government of the provinces, and visited himself, for the purpose of beneficence, the most distant quarters of his dominions. "He appeared," says an ancient author, "like some benevolent deity, diffusing around him universal peace and happiness." He died in Pannonia [at Vienna], in the 59th year of his age, and 19th of his reign, A.D. 180.

3. Commodus, his most unworthy son, succeeded to the empire on his death. He resembled in character his mother Faustina, a woman infamous for all manner of vice, but who had yet passed with her husband Marcus for a paragon of virtue. Commodus had an aversion to every rational and liberal pursuit, and a fond attachment to the sports of the circus and amphitheatre, the hunting of wild beasts, and the combats of boxers and gladiators. The measures of this reign were as unimportant as the

* The Romans so venerated the memory of Antoninus that for nearly a century after his death, every succeeding emperor assumed his name for the sake of popularity.—ED.

character of the sovereign was contemptible. His concubine [Marcia], and some of his chief officers prevented their own destruction by assassinating the tyrant [he was strangled in his bed], in the 32nd year of his age, and 13th of his reign, A.D. 193.*

4. The prætorian guards gave the empire to Publius Helvius Pertinax, a man of mean birth, who had risen to esteem by his virtues and military talents. He applied himself with zeal to the correction of abuses; but the austerity of his government deprived him of the affections of a corrupted people. He had disappointed the army of a promised reward; and after a reign of 86 days, was murdered in the imperial palace by the same hands which had placed him on the throne.

5. The empire was now put up to auction by the prætorians, and was purchased by Didius Juliánus; while Pescennius Níger in Asia, Clódius Albinus in Britain, and Septimius Sevérus in Illyria, were each chosen Emperor by the troops they commanded. Sevérus marched to Rome; and the prætorians, on his approach, abandoned Didius, who had failed to pay the stipulated price for his elevation, and the senate formally deposed and put him to death [after a reign of 60 days]. Sevérus, master of Rome, prepared to reduce the provinces which had acknowledged the sovereignty of Níger and Albinus; and these two rivals being successively subdued, the one lost his life in battle, and the other fell by his own hands. The administration of Sevérus was wise and equitable, but tinctured with despotic rigour. It was his purpose to erect the fabric of absolute monarchy, and all his institutions operated with able policy to that end. He possessed eminent military talents; and it was a glorious boast of his, that having received the empire oppressed with foreign and domestic wars, he left it in profound, universal, and honourable peace. He carried with him into Britain his two sons Caracalla and Geta, whose unpromising dispositions clouded his latter days. In this war the Caledonians under Fingal are said to have defeated, on the banks of the Carron, *Caracul*, the son of the king of the world. Sevérus died at York, in the 66th year of his age, after a reign of 18 years, A.D. 211.

6. The mutual hatred of Caracalla and Geta was in-

* By the Death of Commodus the *Flavian* family was extinguished.—ED.

creased by their association in the empire ; and the former, with brutal inhumanity, caused his brother to be openly murdered in the arms of his mother. His reign, which was of six years' duration, and one continued series of atrocities, was at length terminated by assassination, A.D. 217.

7. Those disorders in the empire which began with Commodus, continued for about a century, till the accession of Diocletian. That interval was filled by the reigns of Heliogabalus, Alexander Severus, Maximin, Gordian, Decius, Gallus, Valerianus, Gallienus, Clandias, Aurelianus, Tacitus, Probus, and Carus ; a period of which the annals furnish neither amusement nor useful information. The single exception is the reign of Alexander Severus, a mild, beneficent, and enlightened prince, whose character shines the more from the contrast of those who preceded and followed him.

8. Diocletian began his reign A.D. 284, and introduced a new system of administration, [which he intended should be ever afterwards continued], dividing the empire into four governments under as many princes. Maximian shared with him the title of Augustus ; and Galerius and Constantius [the lieutenants of Diocletian and Maximian] were declared Cæsars, [and the latter were in turn to rise to the station and attainments of the former]. Each had his separate department or province, all nominally supreme, but in reality under the direction of the superior talents and authority of Diocletian ; an unwise policy, which depended for its efficacy on individual ability alone.* Diocletian and Maximian, trusting to the continuance of that order in the empire which their vigour had established, retired from sovereignty, [A.D. 305,] and left the government in the hands of the Cæsars ; [who now assumed the title of Augustus, and nominated two new Cæsars (Maximin and Severus), in their stead] ; but Constantius died soon after in Britain, and his son Constantine was proclaimed Emperor at York, [A.D. 306,] though Galerius did not acknowledge his title, [as he only bestowed on him that of Cæsar, and conferred that of Augustus on Severus]. Maximian, however, having once more resumed the purple, [engaged, defeated, and put Severus to death], he also bestowed on Constantine his daughter in marriage, and thus invested him with a

* Rome became now no longer the seat of government, Diocletian residing at Nicomedia and Maximian at Milan.—ED.

double title to empire. On the death of Maximian and Galerius, Constantine had no other competitor than Maxentius the son of the former, and the contest between them was decided by the sword. Maxentius fell in battle, and Constantine remained sole master of the empire.

9. The administration of Constantine was, in the beginning of his reign, mild, equitable, and politic. Though zealously attached to the Christian faith, he made no violent innovations on the religion of the state. He introduced order and economy into the civil government, and repressed every species of oppression and corruption. But his natural temper was severe and cruel; and the latter part of his reign was as much deformed by intolerant zeal and sanguinary rigour as the former had been remarkable for equity and benignity. From this unfavourable change of character he lost the affections of his subjects; and from a feeling probably of reciprocal disgust, he removed the seat of the Roman empire to Byzantium, now termed Constantinople. The court followed the sovereign; the opulent proprietors were attended by their slaves and retainers; Rome was in a few years greatly depopulated, and the new capital swelled at once to enormous magnitude. It was characterised by Eastern splendour, luxury, and voluptuousness; and the cities of Greece were despoiled for its embellishment. Of the internal policy of the empire we shall treat in the next section. In an expedition against the Persians, Constantine died at Nicomedia, in the 30th year of his reign, and 63rd of his age, A.D. 337. In the time of Constantine the Goths had made several irruptions on the empire, and, though repulsed and beaten, began gradually to encroach on the provinces.

XLIV.—*State of the Roman Empire at the time of Constantine—His successors.*

1. In lieu of the ancient republican distinctions, which were founded chiefly on personal merit, a rigid subordination of rank and office now went through all the orders of the state. The magistrates were divided into three classes, distinguished by the unmeaning titles of,—1. The *Illustrious*; 2. The [*Spectabiles*, or] *Respectable*; 3. The *Clarissimi*. The epithet of *Illustrious* was bestowed on—1. The consuls and patricians; 2. The prætorian prefects of Rome and Constantinople; 3. The masters-general of

the cavalry and infantry ; 4. The seven ministers of the palace. The consuls were created by the sole authority of the emperor : their dignity was inefficient ; they had no appropriate function in the state, and their names served only to give the legal date to the year. The dignity of patrician was not, as in ancient times, an hereditary distinction, but was bestowed as a title of honour by the Emperor on his favourites. From the time of the abolition of the prætorian bands by Constantine, the dignity of prætorian prefect was conferred on the civil governors of the four departments of the empire. These were, the East, Illyria, Italy, and the Gauls. They had the supreme administration of justice and of the finances, the power of supplying all the inferior magistracies in their district, and an appellative jurisdiction from all its tribunals. Independent of their authority, Rome and Constantinople had each its own prefect, who was the chief magistrate of the city. In the second class, the *Spectabiles*, were the pro-consuls of Asia, Achaia, and Africa, and the military *comites* (counts), and *duces* (dukes), generals of the imperial armies. The third class, *Clarissimi*, comprehended the inferior governors and magistrates of the provinces, responsible to the prefects and their deputies.

2. The intercourse between the court and provinces was maintained by the construction of roads, and the institution of regular posts or couriers : under which denomination were ranked the numberless spies of government, whose duty was to convey all sorts of intelligence from the remotest quarters of the empire to its chief seat. Every institution was calculated to support the fabric of despotism. Torture was employed for the discovery of crimes. Taxes and impositions of every nature were prescribed and levied by the sole authority of the Emperor. The quantity and rate were fixed by a *census* made over all the provinces, and part was generally paid in money, part in the produce of the lands ; a burden frequently found so grievous as to prompt to the neglect of agriculture. Every object of merchandise and manufacture was likewise highly taxed. Subsidies, moreover, were exacted from all the cities, under the name of free gifts, on various occasions of public concern ; as the accession of an Emperor, his consulate, the birth of a prince, a victory over the barbarians, or any other event of similar importance.

3. An impolitic distinction was made between the troops stationed in the distant provinces and those in the heart of the empire. The latter, termed *Palatines*, enjoyed a higher pay and more peculiar favour, and, having less employment, spent their time in idleness and luxury ; while the former, termed the *Borderers*, who, in fact, had the care of the empire, and were exposed to perpetual hard service, had, with an inferior reward, the mortification of feeling themselves regarded as of meaner rank than their fellow-soldiers. Constantine likewise, from a timid policy of guarding against mutinies of the troops, reduced the legion from its ancient complement of 5,000, 6,000, 7,000, and 8,000, to 1,000 or 1,500, and debased the body of the army by the intermixture of Scythians, Goths, and Germans.

4. This immense mass of heterogeneous parts, which internally laboured with the seeds of dissolution and corruption, was kept together for some time by the vigorous exertions of despotic authority. The fabric was splendid and august ; but it wanted both that energy of constitution and that real dignity which, in former times, it derived from the exercise of heroic and patriotic virtues.

5. Constantine, with a destructive policy, had divided the empire among five princes, three of them his sons, and two nephews ; but Constantius, the youngest of the sons, finally got rid of all his competitors, and ruled the empire alone with a weak and impotent sceptre. A variety of domestic broils, and mutinies of the troops against their generals, had left the western frontier to the mercy of the barbarian nations. The Franks, Saxons, Alemanni, and Sarmatians, laid waste all the fine countries watered by the Rhine ; and the Persians made dreadful incursions in the provinces of the East. Constantius indolently wasted his time in theological controversies, but was prevailed on to adopt one prudent measure, the appointment of his cousin Julian [surnamed the Apostate] to the dignity of Cæsar.

6. Julian possessed many heroic qualities, and his mind was formed by nature for the sovereignty of a great people ; but educated at Athens in the schools of the Platonic philosophy, he had unfortunately conceived a rooted antipathy to the doctrines of Christianity. With every talent of a general, and possessing the confidence and affection of his troops, he once more restored the glory of

the Roman arms, and successively repressed the invasion of the Barbarians. His victories excited the jealousy of Constantius, who meanly resolved to remove from his command the better part of his troops: The consequence was a declaration of the army, that it was their choice that Julian should be their Emperor. Constantius escaped the ignominy that awaited him by dying at this critical juncture, and Julian was immediately acknowledged sovereign of the Roman empire. [A.D. 361.]

7. The reformation of civil abuses formed the first object of his attention; which he next turned to the reformation, as he thought, of religion, by the suppression of Christianity. He began by reforming the Pagan theology, and sought to raise the character of its priests, by inculcating purity of life and sanctity of morals; thus bearing involuntary testimony to the superior excellence, in those respects, of that religion which he laboured to abolish. Without persecuting, he attacked the Christians by the more dangerous policy of treating them with contempt, and removing them, as visionaries, from all employment of public trust. He refused them the benefit of the laws to decide their differences, because their religion forbade all dissensions; and they were debarred the studies of literature and philosophy, which they could not learn but from Pagan authors. He was himself, as a Pagan, the slave of the most bigoted superstition, believing in omens and auguries, and fancying himself favoured with an actual intercourse with the gods and goddesses. To avenge the injuries which the empire had sustained from the Persians, Julian marched into the heart of Asia, and was for some time in the train of conquest, when, in a fatal engagement, though crowned with victory, he was slain, at the age of 31, after a reign of three years, A.D. 363.

8. The Roman army was dispirited by the death of its commander. They chose for their emperor Jovian, a captain of the domestic guards, and purchased a free retreat from the dominions of Persia by the ignominious surrender of five provinces, which had been ceded by a former sovereign to Galerius. The short reign of Jovian, a period of seven months, was mild and equitable. He favoured Christianity, and restored its votaries to all their privileges as subjects. He died suddenly [from accidental suffocation by charcoal] at the age of 33. [A.D. 364.]

9. Valentinian was chosen emperor by the army on the

death of Jovian ; a man of obscure birth, and severe manners, but of considerable military talents. He associated with himself in the empire his brother Valens, to whom he gave the dominion of the eastern provinces, reserving to himself the western. The Persians, under Sápór [Shahpur], were making inroads on the former, and the latter was subject to continual invasion from the northern barbarians. They were successfully repelled by Valentinian in many battles ; and his domestic administration was wise, equitable and politic. The Christian religion was favoured by the emperor, though not promoted by the persecution of its adversaries ; a contrast to the conduct of his brother Valens, who, intemperately supporting the Arian heresy, set the whole provinces in a flame, and drew a swarm of invaders upon the empire in the guise of friends and allies, who in the end entirely subverted it. These were the Goths, who, migrating from Scandinavia, had, in the second century, settled on the banks of the Palus Mæótis, and thence gradually extended their territory. In the reign of Valens they took possession of Dacia, and were known by the distinct appellation of Ostrogoths and Visigoths, or Eastern and Western Goths ; a remarkable people, and whose manners, customs, government, and laws, are afterwards to be particularly noted.

10. Valentinian died on an expedition against the Alemanni [in the 54th year of his age, after having reigned nearly 12 years] and was succeeded in the empire of the West by Gratian, his eldest son, a boy of 16 years of age, A.D. 367. Valens in the east was the scourge of his people. The Huns, a new race of barbarians, of Tartar or Siberian origin, now poured down on the provinces both of the west and east. The Goths, comparatively a civilized people, fled before them. The Visigoths, who were first attacked, requested protection from the empire, and Valens imprudently gave them a settlement in Thrace. The Ostrogoths made the same request, and on refusal, forced their way into the same province. Valens gave them battle at Adrianóple : his army was defeated, and he himself slain in the engagement [A.D. 378]. The Goths, unresisted, ravaged Achaia and Pannonia.

11. Gratian, a prince of good dispositions, but of little energy of character, assumed Theodosius as his colleague, who, on the early death of Gratian, and minority of his son Valentinian II., governed with great ability both the

eastern and western empire. The character of Theodosius, deservedly surnamed *the Great*, was worthy of the best ages of the Roman state. He successfully repelled the encroachments of the barbarians, and secured, by wholesome laws, the prosperity of his people. He died after a reign of 18 years, assigning to his sons, Arcadius and Honorius, the separate sovereignties of East and West, A.D. 395.

XLV.—Progress of the Christian Religion, from its Institution to the Extinction of Paganism in the Reign of Theodosius.

1. The reign of Theodosius was signalized by the downfall of the pagan superstition, and the full establishment of the Christian religion in the Roman empire. This great revolution of opinions is highly worthy of attention, and naturally induces a retrospect to the condition of the Christian church from its institution down to this period.

It has been frequently remarked, because it is an obvious truth, that the concurrence of circumstances at the time of our Saviour's birth was such as, while a divine revelation seemed to be then more peculiarly needed, the state of the world was remarkably favourable for the extensive dissemination of the doctrines it conveyed. The union of so many nations under one power, and the extension of civilization, were favourable to the progress of a religion which prescribed universal charity and benevolence. The gross superstitions of paganism, and its tendency to corrupt instead of purifying the morals, contributed to explode its influence with every thinking mind. Even the prevalent philosophy of the times, Epicurism, more easily understood than the refinements of the Platonists, and more grateful than the severities of the Stoics, tended to degrade human nature to the level of the brute creation. The Christian religion, thus necessary for the reformation of the world, found its chief partisans in those who were the friends of virtue, and its enemies among the votaries of vice.

2. The persecution which the Christians underwent from the Romans has been deemed an exception to that spirit of toleration they showed to the religions of other nations: but they were tolerating only to those whose theologies were not hostile to their own. The religion of the Romans was interwoven with their political constitu-

tion. The zeal of the Christians, aiming at the suppression of all idolatry, was not unnaturally regarded as dangerous to the state; and hence they were the object of hatred and persecution. In the first century, the Christian church suffered deeply under Nero and Domitian; yet those persecutions had no tendency to check the progress of its doctrines.

3. It is matter of question what was the form of the primitive church, and the nature of its government; and on this head much difference of opinion obtains, not only between the Catholics and Protestants, but between the different classes of the latter, as the Lutherans and Calvinists. It is, moreover, an opinion, that our Saviour and his apostles, confining their precepts to the pure doctrines of religion, have left all Christian societies to regulate their frame and government in the manner best suited to the civil constitutions of the countries in which they are established.

4. In the second century, the books of the New Testament were collected into a volume by the elder fathers of the church, and received as a canon of faith. The Old Testament had been translated [by Aquila, Theodotion, and Symmachus] from the Hebrew into Greek, by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus, 284 years before Christ. The early church suffered much from an absurd endeavour of the more learned of its votaries to reconcile its doctrines to the tenets of the pagan philosophers; hence the sects of the Gnostics and Ammonians, and the Platonizing Christians. The Greek churches began in the second century to form provincial associations, and establish general rules of government and discipline. Assemblies were held, termed *synodi* and *concilia*, over which a metropolitan presided. A short time after arose the superior order of patriarch, presiding over a large district of the Christian world; and a subordination taking place even among these, the bishop of Rome was acknowledged the chief of the patriarchs. Persecution still attended the early church, even under those excellent princes Trajan, Adrian, and the Antonines; and in the reign of Severus, the whole provinces of the empire were stained with the blood of the martyrs.

5. The third century was more favourable to the progress of Christianity and the tranquillity of its disciples. In those times it suffered less from the civil arm than

from the pens of the pagan philosophers, Porphyry, Philostratus, &c. ; but these attacks called forth the zeal and talents of many able defenders, as Origen, Dionysius, and Cyprian. A part of the Gauls, Germany, and Britain received in this century the light of the Gospel.

6. In the fourth century, the Christian Church was alternately persecuted and cherished by the Roman emperors. Among its oppressors we rank Diocletian, Galerius, and Julian. Among its favourers, Constantine and his sons, Valentinian, Valens, Gratian, and the excellent Theodosius, in whose reign the pagan superstition came to its final period.

7. From the age of Numa to the reign of Gratian, the Romans preserved the regular succession of the several sacerdotal colleges, the Pontiffs, Augurs, Vestals, *Flamines*, *Salii*, &c., whose authority, though weakened in the latter ages, was still protected by the laws. Even the Christian emperors held, like their pagan predecessors, the office of *Pontifex Maximus*. Gratian was the first who refused that ancient dignity as a profanation. In the time of Theodosius the cause of Christianity and of Paganism was solemnly debated in the Roman senate between Ambrose, archbishop of Milan, the champion of the former, and Symmachus, the defender of the latter. The cause of Christianity was triumphant, and the senate issued its decree for the abolition of Paganism, whose downfall in the capital was soon followed by its extinction in the provinces. Theodosius, with able policy, permitted no persecution of the ancient religion, which perished with the more rapidity, that its fall was gentle and unresisted.

8. But the Christian church exhibited a superstition in some respects little less irrational than Polytheism, in the worship of saints and relics ; and many novel tenets, unfounded in the precepts of our Saviour, and his Apostles, were manifestly borrowed from the Pagan schools. The doctrines of the Platonic philosophy seem to have led to the notions of an intermediate state of purification ; celibacy of the priests, ascetic mortifications, penances, and monastic seclusion [and are said to have been first practised in Alexandria].

XLVI.—*Extinction of the Roman Empire in the West.*

1. In the reigns of Arcadius and Honorius, the sons and successors of Theodosius, the barbarian nations esta-

blished themselves in the frontier provinces both of the East and West. Theodosius had committed the government to Rufinus and Stilicho during the nonage of his sons; and their fatal dissensions gave every advantage to the enemies of the empire. The Huns, actually invited by Rufinus, overspread Arménia, Cappadócæ, and Syria. The Goths under Alaric ravaged to the borders of Italy, and laid waste Achaia to the Peloponnésus. Stilicho, an able general, made a noble stand against these invaders; but his plans were frustrated by the machinations of his rivals and the weakness of Arcádus, who purchased an ignominious peace by ceding to Alaric the whole of Greece.

2. Alaric, now styled king of the Visigoths, prepared to add Italy to his new dominions. He passed the Alps, and was carrying all before him, when, amused by the politic Stilicho with the prospect of a new cession of territory, he was taken at unawares, and defeated by that general, then commanding the armies of Honorius. The emperor triumphantly celebrated on that occasion the *eternal* defeat of the Gothic nation; an eternity bounded by the lapse of a few months. In this interval a torrent of the Goths breaking down upon Germany, forced the nations whom they dispossessed, the Suevi, Alani, and Vandals, to precipitate themselves upon Italy. They joined their arms to those of Alaric, who, thus reinforced, determined to overwhelm Rome. The policy of Stilicho made him change his purpose on the promise of 4000 pounds weight of gold; a promise repeatedly broken by Honorius, and its violation finally revenged by Alaric, by the sack and plunder of the city, A.D. 410. With generous magnanimity he was sparing of the lives of the vanquished, and with singular liberality of spirit, anxious to preserve every ancient edifice from destruction, [he evacuated the city on the sixth day after the capture and proceeded on his march towards southern Italy].

3. Alaric, preparing now for the conquest of Sicily and Africa, died at this era of his highest glory; and Honorius, instead of profiting by this event to recover his lost provinces, made a treaty with his successor Ataulfus, gave him in marriage his sister Placidia, and secured his friendship by ceding to him a portion of Spain, while a great part of what remained had before been occupied by the Vandals. He allowed soon after to the Burgundians a just title to their conquests in Gaul. Thus

the western empire was by degrees mouldering from under the dominion of its ancient masters.

4. In the East, the mean and dissolute Arcadius died in the year 408, leaving that empire to his infant son Theodosius II., whose sister Pulcheria swayed the sceptre with much prudence and ability; and the weakness of her brother allowed her government to be of forty years' continuance. Honorius died in the year 423. The laws of Arcadius and Honorius are, with a few exceptions, remarkable for their wisdom and equity; a singular phenomenon, considering the personal character of those princes, and evincing at least that they employed some able ministers.

5. The Vandals under Genseric subdued the Roman provinces in Africa. The Huns in the East extended their conquests from the borders of China to the Baltic sea. Under Attila they laid waste Mœsia [or Mysia] and Thrace; and Theodosius II., after a mean attempt to murder the barbarian general, ingloriously submitted to pay him an annual tribute. It was in this crisis of universal decay that the Britons implored the Romans to defend them against the Picts and Scots, but received for answer, that they had nothing to bestow on them but compassion. The Britons, in despair, sought aid from the Saxons and Angles, who seized as their property the country they were invited to protect, and founded, in the fifth and sixth centuries, the kingdoms of the Saxon heptarchy. (See Part ii. Sect. 12, § 5.)

6. Attila, with an army of 500,000 men, threatened the total destruction of the empire. He was ably opposed by Ætius, general of Valentinian III. now emperor of the West, who was himself shut up in Rome by the arms of the Barbarian, and at length compelled to purchase a peace. On the death of Attila, his dominions were dismembered by his sons, whose dissensions gave temporary relief to the falling empire.

7. After Valentinian III. we have in the West a succession of princes, or rather names; for the events of their reigns merit no detail. In the reign of Romulus, surnamed Augustulus, the son of Orestes, the empire of the West came to a final period. Odoacer, prince of the Heruli, subdued Italy, and spared the life of Augustulus, on the condition of his resigning the throne, A.D. 476 [after which he assumed the title of King of Italy]. From

the building of Rome to this era, the extinction of the Western Empire, is a period of 1228 years.

8. We may reduce to one ultimate cause the various circumstances that produced the decline and fall of this once magnificent fabric. The ruin of the Roman empire was the inevitable consequence of its greatness. The extension of its dominion relaxed the vigour of its frame: the vices of the conquered nations infected the victorious legions, and foreign luxuries corrupted their commanders; selfish interest supplanted the patriotic affection; the martial spirit was purposely debased by the emperors, who dreaded its effects on their own power; and the whole mass thus weakened and enervated, fell an easy prey to the torrent of barbarians which overwhelmed it.

9. The Herulian dominion in Italy was of short duration. Theodoric, prince of the Ostrogoths (afterwards deservedly surnamed *the Great*), obtained permission of Zeno, emperor of the East, to attempt the recovery of Italy, and a promise of its sovereignty as the reward of his success. The whole nation of the Ostrogoths attended the standard of their prince; and Theodoric, victorious in repeated engagements, at length compelled Odoacer to surrender all Italy to the conqueror [A.D. 492]. The Romans had tasted of happiness under the government of Odoacer, and it was increased under the dominion of Theodoric, who possessed every talent and virtue of a sovereign. His equity and clemency rendered him a blessing to his subjects: he allied himself with all the surrounding nations, the Franks, Visigoths, Burgundians, and Vandals; and he left a peaceable sceptre to his grandson Athalaric, during whose infancy his mother Amalasonte governed with such admirable wisdom and moderation, as left her subjects no real cause of regret for the loss of her father.

10. While such was the state of Gothic Italy, the empire of the East was under the government of Justinian, a prince of mean ability, vain, capricious, and tyrannical. Yet the Roman name rose for a while from its abasement by the merit of his generals. Belisarius was the support of his throne, yet to him he behaved with the most shocking ingratitude. The Persians were at this time the most formidable enemies of the empire, under their sovereigns Cabades and Cosrhoes; and from the latter, a most able prince, Justinian meanly purchased a peace, by a cession

of territory, and an enormous tribute in gold. The civil factions of Constantinople, arising from the most contemptible of causes, the disputes of the performers in the circus and amphitheatre, threatened to hurl Justinian from the throne, had they not been fortunately composed by the arms and the policy of Belisarius. This great general overwhelmed the Vandal sovereignty of Africa, and recovered that province to the empire. He wrested Italy from its Gothic sovereign, and once more restored it for a short space to the dominion of its ancient masters.

11. Italy was once more subdued by the Goths, under the heroic Totila, who besieged and took the city of Rome, but forbore to destroy it at the request of Belisarius. The fortunes of this great man were now in the wane. He was compelled to evacuate Italy; and on his return to Constantinople, his long services were repaid with disgrace. He was superseded in the command of the armies by the eunuch Narses, who defeated Totila in a decisive engagement, in which the Gothic prince was slain. Narses governed Italy with great ability for 13 years, when he was ungratefully recalled by Justin II. the [nephew and] successor of Justinian [who died A.D. 565]. He invited the Lombards to avenge his injuries; and this new tribe of invaders overran and conquered the country, A.D. 568.

XLVII.—Of the Origin, Manners, and Character of the Gothic Nations, before their Establishment in the Roman Empire.

1. The history and manners of the Gothic nations are curious objects of inquiry, from their influence on the constitutions and national character of most of the modern kingdoms of Europe. As the present inhabitants of these kingdoms are a mixed race, compounded of the Goths and of the nations whom they subdued, the laws, manners, and institutions of the modern kingdoms are the result of this conjunction; and in so far as these are different from the usages prevalent before this intermixture, they are, in all probability, to be traced from the ancient manners and institutions of those northern tribes. We purpose to consider, first, The original character of the Gothic nations; and secondly, The change of their manners on their establishment in the Roman empire.

2. The Scandinavian chronicles attribute to the ancient inhabitants of that country an Asiatic origin, and inform

us that the Goths were a colony of Scythians, who migrated thither from the banks of the Black Sea and the Caspian : but these chronicles do not fix the period of this migration, which some later writers supposed to have been 1000 years, and others only 70, before the Christian era. Odin, the chief deity of the Scandinavians, was the god of the Scythians. Sigga, a Scythian prince, is said to have undertaken a distant expedition ; and after subduing several of the Sarmatian tribes, to have penetrated into the northern parts of Germany, and thence into Scandinavia. He assumed the honours of divinity, and the title of Odin, his national god. He conquered Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, and gave wise and salutary laws to the nations he had subdued by his arms.

3. The agreement in manners between the Scythians and the ancient Scandinavian nations is strongly corroborative of the accounts given in the northern chronicles of the identity of their origin. The description of the manners of the Germans by Tacitus (though this people was probably not of Scythian, but of Celtic origin) may, in many particulars, be applied to the ancient nations of Scandinavia ; and the same description coincides remarkably with the account given by Herodotus of the manners of the Scythians. Their life was spent in hunting, pasturage, and predatory war. Their dress, their weapons, their food, their respect for their women, their religious worship, were the same. They despised learning, and had no other records for many ages than the songs of their bards.

4. The theology of the Scandinavians was most intimately connected with their manners. They held three great principles, or fundamental doctrines of Religion : "To serve the Supreme Being with prayer and sacrifice ; to do no wrong or unjust action ; and to be intrepid in fight." These principles are the key to the *Edda*, or sacred book of the Scandinavians, which, though it contains the substance of a very ancient religion, is not itself a work of high antiquity, being compiled in the 13th century by Snorro Sturleson, supreme judge of Iceland. Odin, characterized as the Terrible and Severe God, the Father of Carnage, the Avenger, is the principal deity of the Scandinavians ; from whose union with Frea, the heavenly mother, sprung various subordinate divinities ; as Thor, who perpetually wars against Loke and his evil giants, who envy the power of Odin, and seek to destroy

his works. Among the inferior deities are the Virgins of the Valhalla, whose office is to minister to the heroes in paradise. The favourites of Odin are all who die in battle, or, what is equally meritorious, by their own hand. The timid wretch, who allows himself to perish by disease or age, is unworthy of the joys of paradise. These joys are fighting, ceaseless slaughter, and drinking beer out of the skulls of their enemies, with a renovation of life, to furnish a perpetuity of the same pleasures.

5. As the Scandinavians believed this world to be the work of some superior intelligences, so they held all nature to be constantly under the regulation of an Almighty will and power, and subject to a fixed and unalterable destiny. These notions had a wonderful effect on the national manners, and on the conduct of individuals. The Scandinavian placed his sole delight in war: he entertained an absolute contempt of danger and of death, and his glory was estimated by the number he had slain in battle. The death song of *Regner Logbrok*, who comforts himself in his last agonies by recounting all the acts of carnage he had committed in his lifetime, is a faithful picture of the Scandinavian character.

6. We have remarked the great similarity of the manners of the Scandinavians and those of the ancient Germans. These nations seem, however, to have had a different origin. The Germans, as well as the Gauls, were branches of that great original nation termed *Celtæ*, who inhabited most of the countries of Europe to the south of the Baltic, before they were invaded by the northern tribes from Scandinavia. The *Celtæ* were all of the Druidical religion; a system which, though different from the belief and worship of the Scandinavians, is founded nearly on the same principles; and the Goths, in their progress, intermixing with the Germans, could not fail to adopt, in part, the notions of a kindred religion. Druidism acknowledged a god that delighted in bloodshed; it taught the immortality of the soul, and inculcated the contempt of danger and death; "That it was cowardly to be sparing of a life that would be renewed." Tacitus remarks of the ancient Germans, that they had neither temples nor idols. The open air was the temple of the divinity, and a consecrated grove the appropriated place for prayer and sacrifice, which none but the priests were allowed to enter. The chief sacrifices were human victims, most probably the

prisoners taken in war. The Druids heightened the sanctity of their character by concealing the mysteries of their worship. They had the highest influence over the minds of the people, and thus found it easy to conjoin a civil authority with the sacerdotal; a policy which in the end led to the destruction of the Druidical system; for the Romans found no other way of securing their conquests over any of the Celtic nations, than by exterminating the Druids.

7. Whatever differences of manners there may have been among the various nations or tribes of Gothic origin, the great features of their character appear to have been the same. Nature, education, and prevailing habits, all concurred to form them for an intrepid and conquering people. Their bodily frame, invigorated by the climate they inhabited, ever inured to danger and fatigue, war their habitual occupation, believing in an unalterable destiny, and taught by their religion, that a heroic sacrifice of life gave certain assurance of eternal happiness; how could a race of men so characterised fail to be the conquerors of the world?

XLVIII.—Of the Manners, Laws, and Government of the Gothic Nations, after their Establishment in the Roman Empire.

1. It has been erroneously imagined, that the same ferocity of manners which distinguished the Goths in their original seats, attended their successors in their new establishments in the provinces of the Roman empire. Modern authors have given a currency to this false idea. Voltaire, in describing the middle ages, paints the Goths in all the characters of horror; as “a troop of hungry wolves, foxes, and tigers, driving before them the scattered timid herds, and involving all in ruin and desolation.” The accounts of historians most worthy of credit will dissipate this injurious prejudice, and show these northern nations in a more favourable point of view, as not unworthy to be the successors of the Romans.

2. Before the settlement in the southern provinces of Europe, the Goths were no longer idolaters, but Christians; and their morality was suitable to the religion they professed. Salvianus, bishop of Marseilles, in the fifth century, draws a parallel between their manners and those of the Romans, highly to the credit of the former.

Grotius, in his publication of Procopius and Jornandes, remarks, as a strong testimony to their honourable character as a nation, that no province once subdued by the Goths ever voluntarily withdrew itself from their government.

3. It is not possible to produce a more beautiful picture of an excellent administration than that of the Gothic monarchy in Italy under Theodoric the Great. Although master of the country by conquest, he was regarded by his subjects with the affection of a native sovereign. He retained the Roman laws, and as nearly as possible the ancient political regulations. In supplying all civil offices of state, he preferred the native Romans. It was his care to preserve every monument of the ancient grandeur of the empire, and to embellish the cities by new works of beauty and utility. In the imposition and levying of taxes, he shewed the most humane indulgence on every occasion of scarcity or calamity. His laws were dictated by the most enlightened prudence and benevolence, and framed on that principle which he nobly inculcated in his instructions to the Roman senate, "It is the part of a good prince to prevent offences rather than punish them." The historians of the times delight in recounting the examples of his munificence and humanity. Partial as he was to the Arian heresy, many even of the Catholic Fathers have done the most ample justice to his merits, acknowledging that under his reign the church enjoyed a high measure of prosperity. Such was Theodoric the Great, who is justly termed by Sidonius Apollinarius, "the glory and support of the Roman nation."

4. But a single example could not warrant a general inference with regard to the merits of a whole people. The example of Theodoric is not single. If it does not find a complete parallel, it is at least nearly approached to in the similar characters of Alaric, Amalasontë, and Totila. Alaric, compelled by his enemy's breach of faith to revenge himself by the sack of Rome, showed even in that revenge a noble example of humanity. No blood was shed without necessity; the churches were inviolable asylums; the honour of the women was preserved; the treasures of the city were saved from plunder. Amalasontë, the daughter of Theodoric, repaired to her subjects the loss of her father by the equity and wisdom of her administration. She trained her son to the study of

literature and of every polite accomplishment, as the best means of reforming and enlightening his people. Totila, twice master of Rome, which he won by his arms after an obstinate resistance, imitated the example of Alaric in his clemency to the vanquished, and in his care to preserve every remnant of ancient magnificence from destruction. He restored the senate to its authority; he adorned Rome with useful edifices, regulated its internal policy, and took a noble pride in reviving the splendour and dignity of the empire. "He lived with the Romans," says a contemporary author, "as a father with his children."

5. The stem of the Gothic nation divided itself into two great branches, the Ostrogoths, who remained in Pannonia, and the Westrogoths or Visigoths, so termed from their migrating thence to the west of Europe. Italy was possessed by the latter under Alaric, and by the former under Theodoric. The Visigoths, after the death of Alaric, withdrew into Gaul, and obtained from Honorius the province of Aquitaine, of which Thoulouse was the capital. When expelled from that province by the Franks, they crossed the Pyrenees, and settling in Spain, made Toledo the capital of their kingdom. The race of the Visigoth princes was termed the *Balti*, as that of the Ostrogoths the *Amali*. The Ostrogoths enforced in their dominions the observance of the Roman laws; the Visigoths adhered to a code compiled by their own sovereigns, and founded on the ancient manners and usages of their nations. From this code, therefore, we may derive much information relative to the genius and character of this ancient people.

6. It is enacted by the *Laws of the Visigoths*, that no judge shall decide in any law-suit, unless he finds in that book a law applicable to the case. All causes that fall not under this description are reserved for the decision of the sovereign. The penal laws are severe, but tempered with great equity. No punishment can affect the heirs of the criminal: "Let the consequences of crimes follow those who commit them.—Let him alone be judged guilty who has committed crime, and let the wrong die with him who did it." Death was the punishment of the murder of a freeman; and perpetual infamy of the murder of a slave. Pecuniary fiens were enacted for various subordinate offences, according to their measure of criminality. An adulterer was delivered in bondage to the injured husband; and the free

woman who had committed adultery with a married man, became the slave of his wife. No physician was allowed to visit a female patient, but in the presence of her nearest kindred. The *Lex talionis* was in great observance for such injuries as admitted of it. It was even carried so far, that the incendiary of a house was burnt alive. The trials by judicial combat, by ordeal, and by the judgment of God, which were in frequent use among the Franks and Normans, had no place among the Visigoths. Montesquieu has erroneously asserted, that in all the Gothic nations it was usual to judge the litigants by the law of their own country; the Roman by the Roman law, the Frank by that of the Franks, the Aleman by that of the Alemans. On the contrary, the Visigoth code prohibits the laws of all other nations within the territories of that people: "We will no longer be harassed with Roman laws or foreign enactments." The laws of the Franks and Lombards are remarkable for their wisdom and judicious policy.

7. The government of the Goths, after their settlement in the Roman provinces, was monarchical; and, at first elective, became afterwards hereditary; the sovereign on his death-bed appointing his successors, with the advice or consent of his grandees. Illegitimacy did not disqualify from succession or nomination to the throne.

8. The Dukes and Counts were the chief officers under the Gothic government. The Duke (*Dux exercitus*) was the commander-in-chief of the troops of the province; the Count (*Comes*) was the highest civil magistrate; but these officers frequently intermixed their functions; the Count being empowered, on sudden emergencies, to assume a military command, and the Duke, on some occasions, warranted to exercise judicial authority. In general, however, their departments were distinct. Of *Comites* there were various orders, with distinct official powers; as, *Comes cubiculi*, Chamberlain; *Comes stabuli*, Constable, &c. These various officers were the *proceres* or grandees of the kingdom, by whose advice the sovereign conducted himself in important matters of government, or in the nomination of his successor: but we do not find that they had a voice in the framing of laws, or in the imposition of taxes; and the prince himself had the sole nomination to all offices of government, magistracies, and dignities.

XLIX.—*Method of studying ancient History.*

1. A general and concise view of ancient history may be acquired by the perusal of a very few books; as that part of the *Cours d'Etude* of the Abbé Condillac, which regards the history of the nations of antiquity; the *Elements of General History* by the Abbé Millot, part i.; the *Epitome of Turselline*, with the notes of L'Agneau, part i.; or the excellent *Compendium Historiæ Universalis*, by Professor Offerhaus. of Groningen. The two first of these works have the merit of uniting a spirit of reflection with a judicious selection of events. The notes of L'Agneau to the *Epitome of Turselline*, contain a great store of geographical and biographical information; and the work of Offerhaus is peculiarly valuable, as uniting sacred with profane history, and containing most ample references to the ancient authors. The *Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle*, by the bishop of Meaux, though a work of high merit, is rather useful to those who have already studied history in detail, for uniting in the mind the great current of events, and recalling to the memory their order and connexion, than fitted to convey information to the uninstructed.

But the student who wishes to derive the most complete advantage from history, must not confine himself to such general or compendious views; he must resort to the original historians of ancient times, and the modern writers who have treated with amplitude of particular periods. It may be useful to such students to point out the order in which those historians may be most profitably perused.

2. Next to the historical books of the Old Testament, the most ancient history worthy of perusal is that of Herodotus, which comprehends the annals of Lydia, Ionia, Lycia, Egypt, Persia, Greece, and Macedonia, during above 230 years preceding 479. A.C.

Book I. contains the history of Lydia from Gyges to Croesus; Ancient Ionia; manners of the Persians, Babylonians, &c.; history of Cyrus the Elder.

Book 2. History of Egypt, and manners of the Egyptians.

Book 3. History of Cambyses.—Persian Monarchy under Darius Hystaspes.

Book 4. History of Scythia.

Book 5. Persian embassy to Macedon ; Athens, Lacedæmon, Corinth, at the same period. .

Book 6. Kings of Lacedæmon. — War of Persia against Greece, to the battle of Marathon.

Book 7. The same war, to the battle of Thermopylæ.

Book 8. The naval battle of Salamis.

Book 9. The defeat and expulsion of the Persians from Greece.

(The merits of Herodotus are shortly characterized *supra*, sect. 22, § 1.)

3. A more particular account of the periods treated by Herodotus may be found in Justin, lib. 1, 2, 3, and 7 ; the *Cyropædia* of Xenophon ; the lives of Aristides, Themistocles, Cimon, Miltiades, and Pausanias, written by Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos ; and those of Anaximander, Zeno, Empedocles, Heraclitus, and Democritus, by Diogenes Laertius.

4. The Grecian history is taken up by Thucydides from the period where Herodotus ends, and is continued for 70 years, to the 21st of the Peloponnesian war. (This work characterized, sect. 22, § 2.) The period he treats of is more amply illustrated by perusing the 11th and 12th books of Diodorus Siculus ; the lives of Alcibiades, Chabrias, Thrasybûlus, and Lysias, by Plutarch and Nepos ; the second, third, fourth, and fifth books of Justin, and 14th and 15th chapters of the first book of Orosius.

5. Next to Thucydides, the student ought to peruse the first and second books of Xenophon's history of Greece, which comprehends the narrative of the Peloponnesian war, with the contemporary history of the Medes and Persians ; then the expedition of Cyrus (*Anabasis*) and the continuation of the history to its conclusion with the battle of Mantinée. (Xenophon characterized, sect. 22, § 3.) For illustrating this period, we have the lives of Lysander, Agesilaus, Artaxerxes, Cónon, and Datames, by Plutarch and Nepos ; the fourth, fifth, and sixth books of Justin ; and the 13th and 14th of Diodorus Siculus.

6. After Xenophon, let the student read the 15th and 16th books of Diodorus, which contain the history of Greece and Persia, from the battle of Mantinea to the reign of Alexander the Great. (Diodorus characterized, sect. 22, § 5.) To complete this period, let him read the

lives of Dion, Iphicrates, Timotheus, Phocion, and Timoleon, by Nepos.

7. For the history of Alexander the Great, we have the admirable works of Arrian and Quintus Curtius (the former characterized, sect. 22, § 8.) Curtius possesses great judgment in the selection of facts, with much elegance and perspicuity of diction. He is a good moralist and a good patriot; but his passion for embellishment derogates from the purity of history, and renders his authority suspicious.

8. For the continuation of the history of Greece from the death of Alexander, we have the 18th, 19th, and 20th books of Diodorus; and the history of Justin from the 13th book downwards; together with the lives of the principal personages, written by Plutarch. The history of Justin is a most judicious abridgment of a much larger work by Trogus Pompeius, which is lost. Justin excels in the delineation of characters, and in purity of style.

9. I have mentioned the lives of Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos as the best supplement to the account of particular periods of ancient history. It is the highest praise of Plutarch, that his writings breathe the most admirable morality, and furnish the most instructive lessons of active virtue. He makes us familiarly acquainted with the great men of antiquity, and chiefly delights in painting their private character and manners. The short lives written by Nepos show great judgment, and a most happy selection of such facts as display the genius and character of his heroes. They are written likewise with great purity and elegance.

10. For the Roman history in its early periods, we have, first, the *Antiquities* of Dionysius of Halicarnassus, which bring down the history of Rome to 412 A.U.C. They are chiefly valuable, as illustrating the manners and customs, the rites, civil and religious, and the laws of the Roman state. But the writer is too apt to frame hypotheses, and to give views instead of narratives. We look for these in the modern writers who treat of ancient times, but we cannot tolerate them in the sources of history.

11. The work of Livy is infinitely more valuable; a perfect model of history, both as to matter and composition (characterized, sect. 36, § 10). Of 132 books, we have only remaining 35, and these interrupted by a con-

side:able chasm. The first decade (or ten books) treats of a period of 460 years; the second decade, containing 75 years, is lost; the third contains the second Punic war, including 18 years; the fourth contains the war against Philip of Macedon, and the Asiatic war against Antiochus, a space of 23 years; of the fifth decade there are only five books; and the remainder, which reaches to the death of Drusus, 746 A.U.C., has, together with the second decade, been supplied by Freinshemius. To supply the chasm of the second decade, the student ought to read, together with the epitome of those lost books, the first and second books of Polybius; the 17th, 18th, 22nd, and 23rd books of Justin; the lives of Marcellus and Fabius Maximus by Plutarch; and the Punic and Illyrian wars by Appian.

12. But the history of Polybius demands a separate and attentive perusal, as an admirable compendium of political and military instruction. Of 40 books of general history, we have only five entire, and excerpts of the following twelve. The matter of which he treats is the history of the Romans, and the nations with whom they were at war, from the beginning of the second Punic war to the beginning of the war with Macedonia, comprising in all a period of about fifty years. Of the high estimation in which Polybius stood with the authors of antiquity, we have sufficient proof in the encomiums bestowed on him by Cicero, Strabo, Josephus, and Plutarch; and in the use which Livy has made of his history, in adopting his narratives in many parts of his work, by an almost literal translation.

13. The work of Appian, which originally consisted of 20 books, from the earliest period of the Roman history down to the age of Adrian, is greatly mutilated; there remaining only his account of the Syrian, Parthian, Mithridatic, Spanish, Punic, and Illyrian wars. His narrative of each of these wars is remarkably distinct and judicious, and his composition, on the whole, is chaste and perspicuous. After the history of Appian, the student should resume Livy, from the beginning of the third decade, or 21st book, to the end. Then he may peruse with advantage the lives of Hannibal, Scipio Africanus, Flaminius, Paulus Æmilius, the elder Cato, the Gracchi, Marius, Sylla, the younger Cato, Sertorius, Lucullus, Julius Cæsar, Cicero, Pompey, and Brutus, by Plutarch.

14. The histories of the Jugurthine war, and the conspiracy of Catiline by Sallust, come next in order. (Sallust characterized, sect. 36, § 8.) Then follow the Commentaries of Cæsar, (sect. 36, § 9,) remarkable for perspicuity of narration, and a happy union of brevity with elegant simplicity of style. The epitomes of Florus and of Velleius Paterculus (the latter a model for abridgment of history) may be perused with advantage at this period of the course.

15. For the history of Rome under the first Emperors, we have Suetonius and Tacitus; and for the subsequent reigns, the series of the minor historians, termed *Historiæ Augustæ Scriptores*, and the Byzantine writers. Suetonius rather gives us a series of detached characters, illustrated by an artful selection of facts and anecdotes, than a regular history. His work is chiefly valuable as descriptive of Roman manners, though his genius has too much of the caustic humour of a satirist. Tacitus, with greater powers and deeper penetration (see sect. 36, § 11), has drawn his picture of the times in stern and gloomy colours. From neither of these historians will the ingenious mind of youth receive moral improvement, or pleasing or benevolent impressions; yet we cannot deny their high utility to the student of politics.

16. If we except Herodian, who wrote with taste and judgment, it is doubtful whether any of the subsequent writers of the Roman history deserve a minute perusal. It were preferable that the student should derive his knowledge of the history of the decline and fall of the empire from modern authors, resorting to the original writers only for occasional information on detached points of importance. For this purpose, the General History by Dr. Howel is a work of very high utility, as being written entirely on the basis of the original historians, whose narrative he in general translates, referring constantly to his authorities in the margin. The student will find in this work a most valuable mass of historical information.

17. The reader, having thus founded his knowledge of general history on the original writers, will now peruse with great advantage the modern histories of ancient Greece and Rome, by the able pens of Mitford, Gillies, Gast, Hooke, Gibbon, [Fergusson, Niebuhr and Arnold,] and will find himself qualified to form a just estimate of

their merits, on which (though too frequently the practice) it is presumptuous to decide without such preparatory knowledge.

18. The greatest magazine of historical information which has ever been collected into one body, is the English Universal History; a most useful work, from the amplitude of its matter, its general accuracy, and constant reference to the original authors. We may occasionally consult it with great advantage on points where deep research is necessary; but we cannot read it with pleasure as a continued work, from its tedious details and harshness of style, as well as from its abrupt transitions, and the injudicious arrangement of many of its parts.

19. Geography and chronology have been justly termed the *lights* of history. We cannot peruse with advantage the historical annals of any country without a competent notion of its geographical site, and even of its particular topography. In reading the description of all events, the mind necessarily pictures out the scenes of action; and these it is surely better to draw with truth from nature and reality, than falsely from imagination. Many actions and events are likewise intimately connected with the geography and local circumstances of a country, and are unintelligible without a knowledge of them.

20. The use of chronological tables is very great, both for the purpose of uniting in one view the contemporary events in different nations, which often have an influence on each other, and for recalling to the memory the order and series of events, and renewing the impressions of the objects of former study. It is extremely useful, after perusing the history of a nation in detail, or that of a certain age or period, to run over briefly the principal occurrences in a table of chronology. The most perfect works of this kind are the chronological tables of Dr. Playfair, which unite history and biography; the tables of Dr. Blair; or the older tables by Tallent.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF ANCIENT AND MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

In the following tables the countries unknown to the ancients, or of which the names are uncertain, are left blank.

MODERN EUROPE.		ANCIENT EUROPE.	
GREENLAND, or the Arctic Continent			
SPITZBERGEN Island			
ICELAND Island, belonging to Norway			
NORWAY.*	1. Wardhuis, or Norwegian Lapland	SCANDINAVIA, SCANDIA, vel BALTIA.	2. Nerigon
	2. Drontheim		3. Sitones
	3. Bergen		1. Scritofinni
	4. Aggerhuis, or Christiana		2. Suiones
SWEDEN.	1. Lapland and West Bothnia		3. Gutæ et Hilleviones
	2. Sweden Proper		4. Finningia
	3. Gothland		5. Insulæ Sinus Codani
	4. Finland		
	5. Islands of Gothland, Oeland, Aland, Rugen		
DENMARK.	Jutland	Chersonesus Cimbrica	1. Cimbri
			3. Harudes
			4. Phundusii, Sigulones
			5. Saablingii
	Danish Islands in the Baltic	Insulæ Sinus Codani	1. } Teutones
			2. }
	1. Zealand	SARMATIA EUROPEÆ.	1. Hirri et Æstii vel Ostiones
	2. Funen		
	3. Falster		4. Budini
	4. Longeland		6. Basilici
	5. Laland		8. Cariones
	6. Femeren		
	7. Alsen		10 and 4. Budini
	8. Moen		11. Roxolani
RUSSIA in EUROPE.	9. Bornholm		12. Iazyges
	1. Livonia and Estonia		
	2. Ingria, or the government of Petersburg		
	3. Carelia, or the government of Wiburg		
	4. Novogrod		
	5. Archangel, Samoiedia		
	6. Moscow		
	7. Nishnei Novogrod		
	8. Smolenski		
	9. Kiew		
	10. Bielgorod		
	11. Woronesk		
	12. Azoff		

* Norway, which had long belonged to Denmark, was, in 1814, ceded to the king of Sweden.

MODERN EUROPE.		ANCIENT EUROPE:	
FRANCE.*	1. Picardy	GALLIA.	1. Ambiani
	2. Isle of France		2. Bellovaci, Parisii, Suessones
	3. Champagne		3. Remi, Catalauni, Treasses, 13. Lingones
	4. Normandy		4. Unelli vel Veneti, Sali, Lexovii, Veliocasses
	5. Bretany		5. Osismii, Veneti, Nam- netes, Andes, Redones } Celtæ
	6. Orleannois		6. Aureliani, Carnutes, Senones, Turones, Pictones, Bituriges }
	7. Lionnois		7. Ædui, Segusiani
	8. Provence		8. Salyes, Cavares
	9. Languedoc		9. Volcæ, Arecomici, Helvii, Tolosates
	10. Guienne		10. Petrocorii, Bituriges, Cadur- ci, Ruteni
	11. Gascoigne		11. Aquitani
	12. Dauphiné		12. Allobroges, Centrones
	13. Burgundy & Franche Compté		13. Lingones, Ædui, Sequani
	14. Lorraine and Alsace		14. Leuci, Mediomatrici, Triboci, Nemetes

* The present division of the French empire in Europe, consists of eighty-six departments, whereof eighty-four have their capital towns situated within the limits of their ancient provinces, while two are necessarily beyond the limits of ancient France, namely, the Island of Corsica, which forms the department of *La Corse*, and of which the capital town is Ajaccio, and the county (comtat) of Avignon, which forms part of the department of *Vaucluse*, whereof the capital town is Avignon.—Ed.

The eighty-four departments are as follows :—

The Northern part or circuit (*Partie du Nord*) contains :—

DEPARTMENTS.	CAPITAL TOWNS.	DEPARTMENTS.	CAPITAL TOWNS.
Nord	Lille	Meurthe	Nancy
Pas de Calais	Arras	Bas-Rhin	Strasbourg
Somme	Amiens	Manche	Saint Lô
Seine-Inférieure	Rouen	Calvados	Caen
Oise	Beauvais	Eure	Evreux
Aisne	Laon	Côtes-du-Nord	St. Brieuc
Ardennes	Mézières	Orne	Alençon
Moselle	Metz	Seine-et-Oise	Versailles
Marne	Châlons	Seine	PARIS
Meuse	Bar-sur-Ornain (Bar-le-Duc)	Seine-et-Marne	Melun

The Midland part or circuit contains :—

DEPARTMENTS.	CAPITAL TOWNS.	DEPARTMENTS.	CAPITAL TOWNS.
Finisterre	Quimper	Mayenne	Laval
Haute-Saone	Vesoul	Maine-et-Loire	Angers
Morbihan	Vannes	Sarthe	Le Mans
Ile-et-Vilaine	Rennes	Indre-et-Loire	Tours
Loire-Inférieure	Nantes	Eure-et-Loire	Chartres
Loire-et-Cher	Blois	Vienne	Poitiers
Loiret	Orléans	Charente - Inférieure	Saintes
Cher	Bourges	Charente [eure	Angoulême
Aube	Troyes	Indre	Chateauroux
Yonne	Auxerre	Vienne (haute)	Limoges
Nièvre	Névers	Creuse	Guéret

MODERN EUROPE.

ANCIENT EUROPE.

UNITED NETHERLANDS, [OF HOLLAND.]	1. Holland	SAXONS.	1. } Frisi
	2. Friesland		2. }
UNITED NETHERLANDS, [OF HOLLAND.]	3. Zealand	SAXONS.	4. Cauci vel Chauci
	4. Groningen		5. Franci
	5. Overysell and Drenthe		6. Bructeri, Catti, Sicambri
	6. Guelderland and Zutphen		7. Batavi
	7. Utrecht		
AUSTRIAN, FRENCH, and DUTCH NETHERLANDS [OF BELGIUM] *	1. Brabant, { [North, or] Dutch [South, or] Austrian	BELGÆ &c.	1. Menapii, Tungrii,
	2. Antwerp, Austrian		2. Toxandri
	3. Mechlen, or Malines, Austrian.		
	4. Limburgh { Dutch Austrian		4. } Alemanni
	5. Luxembourg { French Austrian		5. }
	6. Namur, Austrian		6. Treveri
	7. Hainault, { Austrian French		7. Remi
	8. Cambresis, French		
	9. Artois, French		9. Atrebrates, Veromandui
	10. Flanders { Dutch Austrian French		10. Belgæ, Morini

The Midland part or circuit—continued.

DEPARTMENTS.	CAPITAL TOWNS.	DEPARTMENTS.	CAPITAL TOWNS.
Marne-Haute	Chaumont	Ailier	Moulins
Côte-d'or	Dijon	Puy de Dôme	Clermont
Vosges	Epinal	Saône et Loire	Macon
Doubs	Besançon	Jura	Lons-le-Saulnier
Rhin (haut)	Colmar	Loire	Montbrison
Vendée	Bourbon-Vendée	Rhône	Lyon
Sèvres (deux)	Niort	Ain	Bourg

The Southern part or circuit contains:—

DEPARTMENTS.	CAPITAL TOWNS.	DEPARTMENTS.	CAPITAL TOWNS.
Dordogne	Périgueux	Tarn	Alby
Corrèze	Tulles	Hérault	Montpellier
Cantal	Aurillac	Gard	Nîmes
Loire (haute)	Le Puy	Vaucluse	Avignon
Ardèche	Privas	Bouches du Rhône	Marseille
Drôme	Valence	Alpes (hautes)	Gap
Isère	Grenoble	Alpes (basses)	Digne
Gironde	Bordeaux	Var	Draguignan
Lot-et-Garonne	Agen	Pyrénées (hautes)	Tarbes
Lot	Cahors	Pyrénées (basses)	Pau
Aveyron	Rhodes	Garonne (haute)	Toulouse
Lozère	Mende	Arrière	Foix
Landes	Mont-de-Marsan	Aude	Carcassonne
Gers	Auch	Pyrénées-Orientales	Perpignan
Tarn-et-Garonne	Montauban	Corse	Ajaccio

* By the treaty of London, Nov. 13, 1831, the kingdom of Belgium was declared to consist of the provinces of South or Austrian Brabant, Liege, Namur, Hainault, West or Dutch Flanders, East or Austrian Flanders, Limburg, and Antwerp, being the same that constituted part of the Netherlands in 1815. Holland now consists, in addition to what is mentioned in the above, of North or Dutch Brabant, Dutch Limburg and part of the Duchy of Luxemburg.—Ed.

MODERN EUROPE.

[The circles or provinces of]	1. Upper Saxony
	2. Lower Saxony
GERMANY,	3. Westphalia
	4. Upper Rhine
	5. Lower Rhine
	6. Franconia
	7. Austria*
	8. Bavaria
	9. Suabia
BOHEMIA.†	1. Bohemia Proper
	2. Silesia
	3. Moravia
POLAND.‡	1. Greater Poland
	2. Lesser Poland
	3. Prussia Royal
	4. Prussia Ducal
	5. Samogitia
	6. Courland
	7. Lithuania
	8. Warsovia
	9. Polachia
	10. Polesia
	11. Red Russia
	12. Podolia
	13. Volhinia
SPAIN.	1. { Galicia
	2. { Asturia
	3. { Biscay
	4. { Navarre
	5. { Arragon
	6. { Catalonia
	7. { Valentia
	8. { Murcia
	9. { Granada
	10. { Andalusia
	11. Old Castile
	12. { New Castile
	13. Leon
	14. Estremadura

ANCIENT EUROPE.

NATIONES GERMANICÆ.	1. Suevi Lingæ, &c.	Saxones
	2. Saxones, Longobardi, Gambrivii	
	3. Cherusci, Chamavi, Gauchi, Germania Inferior	
	4. Germania Superior	
	5. Marci, Tinctori	
	6. Marcomanni, Hermonduri	
	7. Noricum	
	8. Rætia	
	9. Vindelicia	
GERMANO-SARMATÆ.	1. Boiohæmum	
	2. Corconti	
	3. Quadi	
	1. Peucini	
	2. Lugii	
	3. } Burgundiones, Rugii Gu-	
	4. } thones	
	5. Ombroges	
	6. Scyri	
	7. } Germano-Sarmatia	
	8. }	
	11. }	
	12. } Bastarnæ	
	13. }	
HISPANIA, VEL IBERIA.	1. }	
	2. } Gallæcia—Cantabri, As-	
	3. } tures, Varduli	
	4. }	
	5. } Tarraconensis — Vasco	
	6. } nes, Valetani	
	7. }	
	8. } Carthaginensis — Ædi-	
	9. } tani, Contestani	
	10. } Bætica—Bastiani, Bas-	
	11. }	
	12. }	
	13. }	
	14. }	

* This circle or province belongs to the emperor of Austria, who also possesses the Tyrol in the circle of Bavaria, Hungary, Transylvania; and Slavonia, and Venice, with part of Italy, according to the allotment made by the treaty of Vienna, 1815.—ED.

† Bohemia Proper and Moravia now belong to the emperor of Austria; Silesia has been ceded to the king of Prussia.—ED.

‡ This kingdom being dismembered is divided between the emperor of Russia (who has the greatest part), the emperor of Austria (who possesses Lesser Poland), and the king of Prussia.—ED.

MODERN EUROPE.

SPANISH ISLANDS. { Ivice
Majorca
Minorca

PORTUGAL. { Entre Minho e Douro
Tra los Montes
Beira
Estremadura
Entre Tajo
Alentajo
Algarva

SWITZERLAND.* { 1. Bern
2. Friburg
3. Basle or Bâle
4. Lucern
5. Soluturn
6. Schaffhausen
7. Zurich
8. Appenzel
9. Zug
10. Schweitz
11. Glaris
12. Uri
13. Underwald
14. Geneva
15. Grisons, &c. { Confederates of the Swiss

ITALY. { 1. Savoy
2. Piedmont
3. Montferrat
4. Milan
5. Genoa
6. Parma
7. Modena
8. Mantua
9. Venice
10. Trent
11. The Popedom
12. Tuscany
13. Lucca
14. San Marino
15. Kingdom of Naples.

ANCIENT EUROPE.

INSULÆ HISPA-NICÆ. { Balearæ

LUSITANIA. { Calliaci
Lusitani
Celtici

HELVETIA. { 1. }
2. } Ambrones
3. }
4. }
6. }
7. } Tigurini
8. }
9. }
10. }
14. Nantuates
15. Veragri, Vallis Pennina, Lepontii

ITALIA. { 1. Lepontii, Segusini, Taurini
2. Orobi
3. } Liguria
4. Insubres } Gallia Cisalpina, vel Togata
5. Anamani
6. Boii
7. Cenomani
8. Venetia
9. Tridentini
10. Lingones, Senones, Picenum, Umbria, Sabini, Pars Latii
11. Tuscia vel Etruria
12. Pars Tusciæ
13. Pars Umbrise
14. Samnium, Pars Latii, Apulia, Campania, Lucania, Bruttium
15.

* Switzerland is now a federative republic, composed of twenty cantons or separate states, which comprise the thirteen ancient cantons and their federative allies.—ED.

† Italy is now divided according to the allotment made by the treaty of Vienna, 1815, which gave to Austria all the states belonging to the ancient Venetian republic, together with the duchies of Milan and Mantua.—ED.

MODERN EUROPE.

ITALIAN ISLANDS.	1. Sicily
	2. Sardinia
	3. Corsica
	4. Malta
	5. Lipari Islands
	6. Capri Ischia, &c.

HUNGARY.
TRANSYLVANIA.
SCLAVONIA.
CROATIA.*

TURKEY in EUROPE.	1. Dalmatia
	2. Bosnia
	3. Servia
	4. Wallachia
	5. Moldavia & Bessarabia
	6. Bulgaria
	7. Albania
	8. Macedonia
	9. Romania
	10. Livadia
	11. Morea [Bessarabia]
	12. Budziac Tartary or
	13. Little Tartary
	14. Crimea

GREEK ISLANDS.	1. Corfu
	2. Cephalonia
	3. Zante
	4. Ithace, Thiacæ, &c.

In the ARCHIPELAGO.	1. Candia
	2. Negropont
	3. Stalimene
	4. Scyro, &c.

ANCIENT EUROPE.

INSULÆ ITALICÆ.	1. Sicilia, Sicania, vel Trinacria
	2. Sardo, vel Sardinia
	3. Cyrrnus, vel Corsica
	4. Melita
	5. Lipariæ Insulæ
	6. Caprææ, Ischia, &c.

DACIA.
PANNONIA-
ILLYRICUM.

1. Dalmatia	[rior
2. Mœsia [or Mysia]	Superior
3. Dacia Ripensis	
4. Getæ	
5. Pars Daciæ	[rior
6. Mœsia [or Mysia]	Interior

GRÆCIA.	7. Epirus
	8. Macedonia
	9. Thracia
	10. Thessalia
	11. Peloponnesus
	12. Scythia et pars Daciæ
	13. Parva Scythia
	14. Taurica Chersonesus

INSULÆ MARIS IONII.	1. Coreyra
	2. Cephalonia
	3. Zacynthus
	4. Ithaca, &c.

INSULÆ MARIS ÆGÆI.	1. Creta
	2. Eubœa
	3. Lemnos
	4. Scyros, &c.

GREAT BRITAIN.

ENGLAND.	MODERN.	ANCIENT.
	1. Cornwall	1. Damnonii
	2. Devonshire	2. Durotriges
	3. Dorsetshire	3. Belgæ
	4. Hampshire	4. Attrebatii
	5. Somerset.	5. Duboni
	6. Wiltshire	6. Silurus
	7. Berkshire	7. Cornavii
	8. Oxfordshire	8. Trinobantes
	9. Gloucester.	9. Catieuchlani
	10. Monmouth	10. Cantii
	11. Hereford.	11. Regni
	12. Worcester.	12. Simeni, vel
	13. Stafford.	13. Iceni
	14. Shropshire	14. Catieuchlani
	15. Essex	15. Attrebatii
	16. Hertford.	
	17. Kent	
	18. Surrey	
	19. Sussex	
	20. Norfolk	
	21. Suffolk	
	22. Cambridge.	
	23. Huntingdon	
	24. Bedford.	
	25. Bucks.	

ENGLAND—continued.	MODERN.	ANCIENT.
	26. Lincoln.	26. Coritani
	27. Notts.	27. Cornavii
	28. Derbyshire	28. Catieuchlani
	29. Rutland.	29. Ottadeni
	30. Leicester.	30. Brigantes
	31. Warwick.	31. Cornavii
	32. Northamp.	32. Attrebatii et Catieuchlani
	33. Northumb.	
	34. Durham	
	35. Yorkshire	
	36. Lancashire	
	37. Westmore.	
	38. Cumberland	
	39. Cheshire	
	40. Middlesex	
WALES.	1. Anglesey	1. Mona Insula
	2. Flintshire	2. Ordovices
	3. Montgomery	3. Demetre
	4. Denbigh.	4. Silures
	5. Carnarvon.	
	6. Merioneth	
	7. Cardigan.	
	8. Carmarthen.	
	9. Pembroke.	
	10. Radnor.	
	11. Brecknock.	
	12. Glamorgan.	

* These kingdoms belong to the empire of Austria. vide *antea*. GERMANY.—ETC.

GREAT BRITAIN—continued.

MODERN.

ANCIENT.

SCOTLAND.

SCOTIA.

IRELAND.

MODERN.

ANCIENT.

BRITANNIC ISLANDS.	1. Shetland and Orkney
	2. Western Isles of Scotland
	3. Man
	4. Anglesey
	5. Wight

INSULÆ BRITANNICÆ

1. Thule
2. Ebudes Insulæ
3. Mona vel Mona
4. Mona
5. Vectis

1. Edinburgh
2. Haddington
3. Berwick
4. Roxburgh
5. Selkirk
6. Dumfries
7. Kirkcudbright
8. Peebles
9. Wigton
10. Lanark
11. Ayr
12. Dumbarton
13. Bute
14. Renfrew
15. Stirling
16. Linlithgow
17. Fife
18. Clackmannan
19. Kinross
20. Perth
21. Argyle
22. Kincardine
23. Forfar
24. Aberdeen
25. Banff
26. Elgin
27. Nairn
28. Inverness
29. Ross
30. Cromarty
31. Sutherland
32. Caithness
33. Orkney
34. Shetland

1. Dam-	Vectu- riones.
2. nii	
3. Ottodini	
4. }	
5. Selgovæ	Novantes
6. }	
7. }	
8. }	
9. }	Damnii
10. }	
11. }	
12. }	
13. }	Caledonii
14. }	
15. }	
16. }	
17. Epidii, Gade- ni, Cerones	Picti
22. Vernicones	
23. Horestæ	
24. }	
25. Tæzali	Attacoti
26. }	
27. }	
28. Vacomagi	
29. }	Sooti
30. Cantæ	
31. }	
32. Mertæ	
33. Orcades	
34. Thule	

Leinster	1. Louth
	2. Meath East
	3. Meath West
	4. Longford
	5. Dublin
	6. Kildare
	7. King's Co.
	8. Queen's Co.
	9. Wicklow
	10. Carlow
	11. Wexford
	12. Kilkenny
Ulster	13. Donegal or Tyreconnel
	14. Londonderry
	15. Antrim
	16. Tyrone
	17. Fermanagh
	18. Armagh
	19. Down
	20. Monaghan
	21. Cavan
Munster	22. Cork County
	23. Waterford
	24. Tipperary
	25. Limerick
	26. Kerry
Connaught	27. Clare
	28. Galway
	29. Roscommon
	30. Mayo
	31. Sligo
	32. Leitrim

HIBERNIA VEL IRENE.

1. Voluntii
2. }
3. Cauci
4. Auteri
5. }
6. Blanii
7. }
8. Coriondi
9. Blanii
10. }
11. Manapii
12. Coriondi
13. Vennicnii
14. }
15. Robogdii
16. }
17. Erdini
18. }
19. Voluntii
20. }
21. Cauci
22. Vodisæ, Iv-
23. }
24. Brigantes
25. }
26. Velabori
27. }
28. Gangani
29. Auteri
30. }
31. Nagnatæ
32. }

MODERN ASIA.

TURKEY ASIA.	1. Natolia
	2. Amasia or Siwas
	3. Aladulia
	4. Caramania
	5. Irak
	6. Diarbeck
	7. Kurdistan
	8. Turcomania
	9. Georgia
	10. Syria and Palestine
ARABIA.	Arabia Petraea
	Arabia Deserta
	Arabia Felix

ANCIENT ASIA.

ASIA MINOR.	1. Mysia [or Mæsia Inferior], Lydia, Caria, Phrygia, Bithynia, Galatia, Paphlagonia
	2. Pontus
	3. Armenia
	4. Cappadocia, Cilicia, &c.
	5. Babylonia, Chaldaea
	6. Mesopotamia
	7. Assyria
	8. } Armenia Major
	9. }
	10. { Syria, Palmyrene Phœnicia, Judæa
ARABIA.	Arabia Petraea
	Arabia Deserta
	Arabia Felix

MODERN ASIA.

PERSIA.	1. Khorassan
	2. Balk, Sablutan, & Kandahar
	3. Sigistan
	4. Makeran
	5. Keriman
	6. Farsistan
	7. Chusestan
	8. Irak Agem
	9. Kurdestan
	10. Aderbeitzen
	11. Georgia
	12. Gangea
	13. Dagestan
	14. Mazanderam
	15. Gilan Taberistan
	16. Chirvan

INDIA.	Mogul	Delhi
		Agri
		Cambaia
		Bengal
	India within the Ganges	Decan
		Golconda
		Bisnagar
		Malabar
	Island of Ceylon	
	India beyond the Ganges	Pegu
		Tonquin
		Cochinchina
		Siam

ANCIENT ASIA.

PERSIA.	1. Pars Hyrcaniæ et Sogdianæ
	2. Bactriana
	3. Drangiana
	4.
	5. Gedrosia
	6. Persis
	7. Susiana
	8. Parthia
	9. Pars Assyriæ
	10. Media
	11.
	12. } Iberia, Colchis, et Albania
	13. }
	15. Pars Hyrcaniæ
	16. Pars Albanie

INDIA.	India intra Gangem	Palibothra
		Agora
		Regna Pori et Taxilis
		Dachanos
	India extra Gangem	Prasii vel Gangaridæ
		Male
	Taprobana Ins. vel Salice	
	India extra Gangem	Sinarum Regio

MODERN.		ANCIENT.		
CHINA.	Niuche	Sinae	RUSSIA in ASIA.	
	Corea			
	Laotong			
	Pekin			
	Xansi			
	Xensi	Sericæ	1. Astracan	1. SARMATIA ASIATICA
	Xantum			
	Nanking			
	Chekiam			
	Honan			
	Huquam	Cathæa	2. Orenburg	2. SCYTHIA
	Kiamsi			
Pokien				
Canton				
Quamsi				
Suchuen	3. Casan		3.	
Quecheu				
Yunum				
CHINESE ISLANDS.	Formosa		4. Siberia { Tobolsk Jeniseia Irkutsk Kamschatka	intra
	Hainan			
	Macao			
	Bashee Is.			
	lands			
		INDEPENDENT TARTARY.	{ 1. Great Buccharia 2. Karasm	{ 1. Bactriana Sogdiana 2. Aria
		CHINESE ALUTH TARTARY.	{ 1. Little Bucharia 2. Casgar 3. Turkestan 4. Kalmac Tartars 5. Thibet 6. Little Thibet	SCYTHIA extra
		CHINESE TARTARY.	{ Kalkas Mongol Tartars Mantchou Tartars Corea	IMAUM
				SINÆ {

MODERN.	ANCIENT.	MODERN.	ANCIENT.
ISLANDS of CHINESE TARTARY. } Sagalien- Ula-bata Jedso		ISLES of SUNDA. } Borneo Sumatra Java, &c.	
ISLANDS of JAPAN. { Japan or Ni- phon Xicoco Kimo		MOLUCCA ISLES. { Celebes Amboyna Ceram Timor Flores, &c.	
PHILIPPINE ISLES. { Lucon or Ma- nilla Mindanao, &c.			
MARIAN OF LADRONE ISLANDS. } Tinian		MALDIVA ISLES.	

MODERN AFRICA.	ANCIENT AFRICA.
BARBARY. { 1. Morocco 2. Algiers 3. Tunis 4. Tripoli 5. Barca	{ 1. Mauretania Tingitana 2. Maurerania Cæsariensis 3. Numidia, Africa Propria 4. Tripolitana 5. Cyrenaica, Lybia Superior
1. EGYPT	1. ÆGYPTUS
2. BILDULGERID	2. LIBYA INFERIOR GÆTULIA
3. ZAARA, or the Desert	3. SOLITUDINES
4. NEGROLAND	4. AUTOLOLES
5. GUINEA	
6. UPPER ETHIOPIA. { Nubia Abyssinia Abex	6. ÆTHIOPIÆ et LIBYÆ pars
7. LOWER ETHIOPIA	7. ÆTHIOPIÆ pars
8. LOWER GUINEA. { Loango Congo Angola Benguela Matanan	
9. AJAN	
10. ZANGUEBAR	
11. MONOMOTAPA	
12. MONGEMUGI	
13. SOPOLA	
14. TERRA de NATAL	
15. CAFFRARIA, or the country of the Hottentots	

NORTH AMERICA.

BRITISH.	ISLANDS.
1. The Countries on the east and west sides of Baffin's and Hudson's Bays	1. Newfoundland
2. Labrador, or New Britain	2. Cape Breton
3. Canada	3. Bermudas
4. Nova Scotia, [or Acadia]	4. Long Island
5. New England	5. Bahama Islands
6. New York	6. Jamaica
7. New Jersey	7. St. Christopher's
8. Pennsylvania	8. Nevis
9. Maryland	9. Montserrat
10. Virginia	10. Antigua
11. North Carolina	11. Dominica
12. South Carolina	12. St. Vincent
13. Georgia	13. Tobago
14. Florida	14. Grenada
	15. Barbadoes, &c. &c.

NORTH AMERICA--*continued.*

SPANISH.*		FRENCH ISLANDS.	
{	1. Mexico, or New Spain	{	1. Miquelon
	2. New Mexico		2. Porto Rico
	3. Louisiana		3. Part of St. Martin's Isle
ISLANDS.			4. St. Bartholomew
{	1. Cuba		5. Martinico
	2. Porto Rico		6. Guadaloupe
	3. West part of St. Domingo		7. Desiada
	4. Trinidad		8. Mariegalante
	5. Margarita		9. St. Lucia
	6. Cubagna, &c.		10. Part of St. Domingo.†
DUTCH ISLANDS.		DANISH ISLANDS.	
{	1. Port of St. Martin's Isle	{	1. St. Thomas
	2. Eustatius		2. Santa Cruz
	3. Aves		
	4. Buenayres		
	5. Curaçoa		
	6. Aruba		

SOUTH AMERICA.

FRENCH.		DUTCH.	
{	Part of the province of Guiana, Cayenne, &c.	{	Part of Guiana, Surinam, &c.
	1. Terra Firma		Part of Guiana, divided into three settlements of Essequibo, Berbice, and Demerara.]
	2. Country of the Amazons	{	Brazil, and many islands on the coast
	3. Peru		Part of Guiana
	4. Chili		
	5. Terra Magellanica		
	6. Paraguay		
{	7. Tucuman		

The Empire of ASSYRIA, under Ninus and Semiramis, about 2200 before J. C., comprehended—

Asia Minor
Colchis
Assyria
Media
Chaldea
Egypt

The Empire of ASSYRIA, as divided about 820 before J. C., formed three kingdoms—

Media
Babylonia-Chaldea { Syria
 Chaldea
Lydia All Asia Minor

The Empire of the PERSIANS, under Darius Hystaspes, 522 before J. C., comprehended—

Persis
Susiana
Chaldea
Assyria
Media
Bactriana
Armenia
Asia
Parthia
Iberia
Albania
Colchis
Egypt
Part of Ethiopia
Part of Scythia

* The first two of these provinces of North America now form republics, known as the Republic of Texas, the Republic of Mexico, the Republic of Central America. Mexico and Central America are subdivided into states. Louisiana was sold by Buonaparte to the United States.—ED.

† The island of St. Domingo now forms the state of Hayti, whose independence was acknowledged in 1825.—ED.

‡ These provinces now compose what are termed Republics of South America; viz. New Grenada, Venezuela, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia or Upper Peru, Chili, the Argentine Republic, Uruguay, and Paraguay.

The Empire of ALEXANDER the GREAT, 330 before J. C., consisted of—

1. All Macedonia and Greece, excepting Peloponnesus
2. All the Persian Empire, as above described
3. India to the banks of the Indus on the east, and Iaxartes or Tanais on the north

The Empire of ALEXANDER was thus divided 306 before J. C., between Ptolemy, Cassander, Lysimachus, and Seleucus,

Empire of Ptolemy { Egypt
Lybia
Arabia
Coelosyria
Palestine

Empire of Cassander { Macedonia
Greece

Empire of Lysimachus { Thrace
Bithynia

Empire of Seleucus { Syria, and
All the rest of Alexander's empire

The empire of the PARTHIANS, 140 before J.C., comprehended

Parthia
Hyrcania
Media
Persis
Bactriana
Babylonia
Mesopotamia
India to the Indus

The ROMAN Empire, under the Kings, was confined to the City of Rome, and a few miles around it.

The ROMAN Empire, at the end of the Republic, comprehended

All Italy
Great part of Gaul
Part of Britain
Africa Proper
Great part of Spain
Illyria, Iстриa, Liburnia, Dalmatia
Achaia
Macedonia
Dardania, Moesia, Thracia
Pontus, Armenia
Judea, Cilicia, Syria
Egypt

Under the Emperors,

All Spain
The Alpes Maritimæ, Piedmont, &c.
Rhetia, Noricum, Pannonia, and Moesia
Pontus, Armenia
Assyria
Arabia
Egypt

} were reduced into Roman provinces.

Constantius Chlorus and Galerius divided the Empire into EASTERN and WESTERN; and under Constantine each had a distinct capital or seat of Empire.

The extent of each division was fluctuating from time to time; but in general,

The WESTERN Empire comprehended { Italy
Illyria
Africa
Spain
The Gauls
Britain

The EASTERN Empire comprehended { Asia Minor
Pontus, Armenia
Assyria, Media, &c.
Egypt
Thrace
Dacia
Macedonia

The Empire of CHARLEMAGNE, A.D. 800, comprehended

Neustria, comprehending
Bretany, Normandy, Isle of France, Orleannois
Austria, comprehending
Picardy and Champagne
FRANCE. { Aquitania, comprehending
Guienne and Gascony
Burgundia, comprehending
Burgundy, Lionnois, Languedoc, Dauphiné, Provence

Marca Hispanica, or Navarre and Catalonia
Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica, Corsica
Italy, as far south as Naples
Istria, Liburnia, Dalmatia
Rhetia, Vindelica, Noricum
Germany, from the Rhine to the Oder, and the banks of the Baltic.

MODERN HISTORY.

PART SECOND.

I.--*Of Arabia and the Empire of the [Arabs or] Saracens.*

1. The fall of the western empire of the Romans, and the final subjugation of Italy by the Lombards, is the era from which we date the commencement of modern history.

The eastern empire of the Romans continued to exist for many ages after this period, still magnificent, though in a state of comparative weakness and degeneracy. Towards the end of the sixth century, a new dominion arose in the East, which was destined to produce a wonderful change on a great portion of the globe.

The Arabians, at this time a rude nation, living chiefly in independent tribes, who traced their descent from the Patriarch Abraham, professed a mixed religion, compounded of Judaism and idolatry. Mecca, their holy city, arose to eminence from the donations of pilgrims to its temple, in which was deposited a black stone, an object of high veneration. Mahomet was born at Mecca, A.D. 571. Of mean descent, and no education, but of great natural talents, he sought to raise himself to celebrity, by feigning a divine mission to propagate a new religion for the salvation of mankind. He retired to the desert, and pretended to hold conferences with the Angel Gabriel, who delivered to him from time to time portions of a sacred book or *Koran*, containing revelations of the will of the Supreme Being, and of the doctrines which he required his Prophet to communicate to the world.

2. This religion, while it adopted in part the morality of Christianity, retained many of the rites of Judaism, and some of the Arabian superstitions, as the pilgrimage to Mecca; but owed to a certain spirit of Asiatic voluptuousness, its chief recommendation to its votaries. The Koran taught the belief of one God, whose will and power were constantly exerted towards the happiness of his creatures; that the duty of man was to love his neighbours, assist the poor, protect the injured, to be humane to inferior animals, and to pray seven times a day. The pious mussulman was allowed to have four wives, and as many concubines as he chose; and the pleasures of love were promised as the supreme joys of paradise. To revive the impression of those laws which God had engraven originally in the hearts of men, he had sent from time to time his prophets upon earth, Abraham, Moses, Jesus Christ, and Mahomet; the last the greatest, to whom all the world should owe its conversion to the true religion. By producing the Koran in detached parcels, Mahomet had it in his power to solve all objections by new revelations, [and he furthered the advancement of his projects, by the introduction of the doctrine of fatalism, as his followers fought without fear, believing that no human care could avert danger or prolong life beyond its predestined term].

3 Dissensions and popular tumults between the believers and infidels caused the banishment of Mahomet from Mecca. His flight, called the *Hegyra*, (A.D. 622,) is the era of his glory. He betook himself to Medina, [the city of the Prophet], was joined by the brave Omar, and propagating his doctrines with great success, marched with his followers in arms, and took the city of Mecca. In a few years he subdued all Arabia; and then attacking Syria, won several of the [Byzantine, or as they were still called] Roman cities. In the midst of his victories he died at the age of 61, A.D. 632. He had nominated Ali his son-in-law his successor, but Abú-Bekr, his father-in-law, secured the succession by gaining the army to his interest.

4. Abú-Bekr [who assumed the title of Caliph,] united and published the books of the Koran, and prosecuted the conquests of Mahomet. He defeated the army of Heraclius, took Jerusalem, [which was revered by the Mahometans, with as much fervour as by the Jews or Christians] and subjected all between Mount Libanus and the

Mediterranean. On his death [A.D. 634], Omar was elected to the Caliphate,* and in one campaign deprived the Greek empire of Syria, Phœnicia, Mesopotamia, and Chaldæa. In the next, he subdued to the Mussulman dominion and religion the whole empire of Persia. His generals at the same time conquered Egypt, Lybia, and Numidia. [The celebrated library of Alexandria founded by Ptolëmy Philadelphius was burnt by his order, A.D. 639.]

5. Otman [or Othman-ebn-Affân], the successor of Omar, added to the dominion of the Caliphs, Bactriana and part of Tartary, and ravaged Rhodes and the Greek islands. [He was murdered in his palace by the Egyptian army, A.D. 656.] His successor was Ali, the [cousin and] son-in-law of Mahomet, a name to this day revered by the Mahometans. He transferred the seat of the Caliphate from Mecca to Couffa, whence it was afterwards removed to Bagdat. His reign was glorious but only of five years duration. [He was assassinated A.D. 661.] In the space of half a century from the beginning of the conquests of Mahomet, the Saracens raised an empire more extensive than what remained of the Roman. Nineteen Caliphs of the race of Omar (*Omniudes*) reigned in succession, after which began the dynasty of the *Abassidæ*, descended by the male line from Mahomet. Almanzor, second Caliph of this race, removed the seat of empire [from Damascus] to Bagdat, and introduced learning and the culture of the sciences, which his successors continued to promote with equal zeal and liberality. Haroun Al-raschid, who flourished in the beginning of the ninth century, is celebrated as a second Augustus. The sciences chiefly cultivated by the Arabians were Medicine, Geometry, Astronomy, [and Algebra.] They improved the Oriental poetry, by adding regularity to its fancy and luxuriancy of imagery, [which is fully exemplified in the "Arabian Nights' Entertainments," a production referred to the age of Haroun Al-raschid].

II.—*Monarchy of the Franks.*

1. The Franks were originally [a confederacy of] those tribes of Germans who inhabited the districts lying on the Lower Rhine and Weser, and who, in the time of Tacitus, passed under the names of Chauci, Cherusci, Catti, Si-

* This title has since belonged to the kingdom of the Saracenic emperors.—ED.

cambri, Salii, &c. They assumed or received the appellation of *Franks*, or *Freemen*, from their temporary union to resist the dominion of the Romans. Legendary chronicles record a Pharamond and a Merovéus; the latter the head of the first race of the kings of France, termed the Merovingian; but the authentic history of the Franks commences only with his grandson Clovis, who [as Chief of the Salin tribes], began to reign in the year 481. While only in the 20th year of his age, Clovis achieved the conquest of Gaul, by the defeat of Syagrius the Roman Governor; and marrying Clotilda, daughter of Chilperic, king of Burgundy, soon added that province to his dominions, by dethroning his father-in-law. He was converted by Clotilda; and the Franks, till then idolaters, became Christians, after their sovereign's example. The Visigoths, professing Arianism, were masters at this time of Aquitaine, the country between the Rhone and Loire. The intemperate zeal of Clovis prompted the extirpation of these heretics, who retreated across the Pyrenees into Spain, and the province of Aquitaine became part of the kingdom of the Franks. They did not long retain it; for Theodoric the Great, defeating Clovis in the battle of Arles, added Aquitaine to his own dominions. Clovis died A.D. 511.

2. His four sons divided the monarchy, and were perpetually at war with each other. A series of weak and wicked princes succeeded, and Gaul for some ages was characterized under its Frank sovereigns by more than ancient barbarism. On the death of Dagobert II., (A.D. 715) who left two infant sons, the government, during their minority, fell into the hands of their chief officers, termed mayors of the palace; and these ambitious men founded a new power, which for some generations held the Frank sovereigns in absolute subjection, and left them little more than the title of king. Austrasia and Neustria, the two great divisions of the Frank monarchy, were nominally governed by Thierry, but in reality by Pepin Heristel, Mayor of the Palace, who, restricting his sovereign to a small domain, ruled France for 30 years with great wisdom and good policy. His son, Charles Martel, succeeded to his power, and under a similar title governed for 26 years with equal ability and success. He was victorious over all his domestic foes, his arms kept in awe the surrounding nations, and he delivered France from the

ravages of the Saracens, whom he entirely defeated, between Tours and Poitiers, A.D. 732.

3. Charles Martel bequeathed the government of France, as an undisputed inheritance, to his two sons, Pepin le Bref, and Carloman, who governed under the same title of mayor, the one Austrasia, and the other Neustria and Burgundy. On the resignation of Carloman, Pepin succeeded to the sole administration; and ambitious of adding the title of king to the power which he already enjoyed, proposed the question to Pope Zachary, whether he or his sovereign Childeric was most worthy of the throne? Zachary, who had his own interest in view, decided that Pepin had a right to add the title of king to the office; and Childeric was confined to a monastery for life. With him ended the first or Merovingian race of the kings of France, A.D. 751.

4. Pepin recompensed the service done him by the Pope, by turning his arms against the Lombards; and stripping them of the exarchate of Ravenna, [A.D. 752] he made a donation of that and other considerable territories to the Holy See, which were the first, as is alleged, of its temporal possessions. Conscious of his defective title, it was the principal object of Pepin le Bref to conciliate the affections of the people whom he governed. The legislative power among the Franks was vested in the people assembled in their *Champs de Mars*. Under the Merovingian race the regal authority had sunk to nothing, while the power of the nobles had attained to an inordinate extent. Pepin found it his best policy to acknowledge and ratify those rights, which he could not without danger have invaded; and thus, under the character of guardian of the powers of all the orders of the state, he exalted the regal office to its proper elevation, and founded it on the securest basis. On his deathbed, he called a council of the grandees and obtained their consent to a division of his kingdom between his two sons, Charles and Carloman. He died A.D. 768, at the age of 53, after a reign of 17 years from the death of Childeric III., and an administration of 27 from the death of Charles Martel.

III.—*Reflections on the State of France during the Merovingian race of its Kings. Origin of the Feudal System.*

1. The manners of the Franks were similar to those of

the other Germanic nations described by Tacitus. Though under the command of a chief or king, their government was extremely democratical, and they acknowledged no other than a military subordination. The legislative authority resided in the general assembly, or *Champ de Mars*, held annually on the first day of March : a council in which the king had but a single suffrage, equally with the meanest soldier. But when in arms against the enemy, his power was absolute in enforcing military discipline.

2. After the establishment of the Franks in Gaul, some changes took place from their new situation. They reduced the Gauls to absolute subjection ; yet they left many in possession of their lands, because the new country was too large for its conquerors. They left them likewise in the use of their existing laws, which were those of the Roman code, while they themselves were governed by the Salique and Ripuarian laws,* ancient institutions in observance among the Franks before they left their original seats in Germany. Hence arose that extraordinary diversity of local laws and usages in the kingdom of France, which continued down to modern times, and gave occasion to numberless inconveniences.

3. The ancient Germans had the highest veneration for their priests or Druids. It was natural that the Franks, after their conversion to Christianity, should have the same reverence for their bishops, to whom accordingly they allowed the first rank in the national assembly. These bishops were generally chosen from among the native Gauls ; for having adopted from this nation their new religion, it was natural that their priests should be chosen from the same people. The influence of the clergy contributed much to ameliorate the condition of the conquered Gauls, and to humanize their conquerors ; and in a short space of time the two nations were thoroughly incorporated.

4. At this period a new system of policy is visible among this united people, which, by degrees, extended itself over most of the nations of Europe, *the Feudal System*.

By this expression is properly meant that tenure or condition on which the proprietors of land held their possessions, viz., an obligation to perform military service, whenever required by the chief or overlord to whom they owed allegiance.

Many modern writers attribute the origin of this insti-

* The Salii and Ripuarii are distinct nations of Franks.

tution or policy to the kings of the Franks, who, after the conquest of Gaul, are supposed to have divided the lands among their followers, on this condition of military service. But this notion is attended with insurmountable difficulties. For, in the first place, it proceeds on this false idea, that the conquered lands belonged in property to the king, and that he had the right of bestowing them in gifts, or dividing them among his followers; whereas it is a certain fact, that among the Franks the partition of conquered lands was made by lot, as was the division even of the spoil or booty taken in battle; and that the king's share, though doubtless a larger portion than that of his captains, was likewise assigned him by lot. Secondly, if we should suppose the king to have made those gifts to his captains out of his own domain, the creation of a very few *beneficia* would have rendered him a poorer man than his subjects. We must therefore have recourse to another supposition for the origin of the fiefs; and we shall find that it is to be traced to a source much more remote than the conquest of Gaul by the Franks.

5. Among all barbarous nations, with whom war is the chief occupation, we remark a strict subordination of the members of a tribe to their chief or leader. It was observed by Cæsar as peculiarly strong among the Gaulish nations, and as subsisting not only between the soldiers and their commander, but between the inferior towns or villages and the canton or province to which they belonged. In peace every man cultivated his land, free of all taxation, and subject to no other burden than that of military service when required by his chief. When the province was at war, each village, though taxed to furnish only a certain number of soldiers, was bound to send, on the day appointed for a general muster, all its males capable of bearing arms, and from these its rated number was selected by the chief of the province. This *clientela* subsisted among the Franks as well as among the Gauls. It subsisted among the Romans, who, in order to secure their distant conquests, were obliged to maintain fixed garrisons on their frontiers, to check the inroads of the barbarian nations. To each officer in these garrisons it was customary to assign a portion of land as the pledge and pay of his service. These gifts were termed *beneficia*, and their proprietors *beneficiarii*, Plin. Ep. lib. 10. ep. 32. The *beneficia* were at first granted only for life: Alexander

Severus allowed them to descend to heirs, on the like condition of military service.

6. When Gaul was overrun by the Franks, a great part of the lands was possessed on this tenure by the Roman soldiery, as the rest was by the native Gauls. The conquerors, accustomed to the same policy, would naturally adopt it in the partition of their new conquests; each man, on receiving his share, becoming bound to military service, as a condition necessarily annexed to territorial property. With respect to those Gauls who retained their possessions, no other change was necessary, than to exact the same obligation of military vassalage to their new conquerors, that they had rendered to their former masters the emperors, and before the Roman conquest, to their native chiefs. Thus no other change took place than that of the overlord. The system was the same which had prevailed for ages.

7. But these *beneficia*, or fiefs, were personal grants, revocable by the sovereign or overlord, and reverting to him on the death of the vassal. The weakness of the Frank kings of the Merovingian race emboldened the possessors of fiefs to aspire at independence and security of property. In a convention held at Andeli in 587, to treat of peace between Gontran and Childebert II., the nobles obliged these princes to renounce the right of revoking their benefices, which henceforward passed by inheritance to their eldest male issue.

8. It was a necessary consequence of a fief becoming perpetual and hereditary, that it should be capable of subinfeudation; and that the vassal himself, holding his land of the sovereign by the tenure of military service, should be enabled to create a train of inferior vassals, by giving to them portions of his estate to be held on the same condition, of following his standard in battle, rendering him homage as their lord, and paying, as the symbol of their subjection, a small annual present, either of money, or the fruits of their lands. Thus, in a little time, the whole territory in the feudal kingdoms was either held immediately and *in capite* of the sovereign himself, or mediately by inferior vassals of the tenants *in capite*.*

9. It was natural, that in those disorderly times, when the authority of government and the obligation of genera.

* The introduction of the feudal system or tenure into England is a subject noticed hereafter, sect. 15, § 2.

laws were extremely weak, the superior or over-lord should acquire a civil and criminal jurisdiction over his vassals. The *Comites*, to whom, as the chief magistrate of police, the administration of justice belonged of right, paid little attention to the duties of their office, and shamefully abused their powers. The inferior classes naturally chose, instead of seeking justice through this corrupted channel, to submit their lawsuits to the arbitration of their over lord; and this jurisdiction, conferred at first by the acquiescence of parties, came at length to be regarded as founded on strict right. Hence arose a perpetual contest of jurisdiction between the greater barons in their own territories and the established judicatories; a natural cause of that extreme anarchy and disorder which prevailed in France during the greater part of the Merovingian period, and which sunk the regal authority to the lowest pitch of abasement. In a government of which every part was at variance with the rest, it is not surprising that a new power should arise, which in able hands, should be capable of enslaving and bringing the whole under subjection.

10. The Mayor of the Palace, or first officer of the household, gradually usurped, under a series of weak princes, the whole powers of the sovereign. This office, from a personal dignity, became hereditary in the family of Pepin Heristel; and his grandson, Pepin le Bref, removing from the throne those phantoms of the Merovingian race, assumed, by the authority of a papal decree, the title of king, and reigned for 17 years with dignity and success, the founder of the second race of the French monarchs, known by the name of the Carolingian.

IV. *Charlemagne—the new Empire of the West.*

1. Pepin le Bref, with the consent of his nobles, divided, on his death-bed, the kingdom of France, between his sons, Charles and Carloman, A.D. 768. The latter dying a few days after his father, Charles succeeded to the undivided sovereignty. In the course of a reign of 45 years, *Charlemagne* (for so he was deservedly styled*) extended the limits of his empire beyond the Danube; subdued Dacia, Dalmatia, and Istria; conquered and subjected all the barbarous tribes to the banks of the Vistula, made himself master of a great portion of Italy,

* Carolus Magnus, or Karl the Great.—ED.

and successfully encountered the arms of the Saracens the Huns, the Bulgarians, and the Saxons. His war with the Saxons was of 30 years' duration, and their final conquest was not achieved without an inhuman waste of blood. At the request of the Pope, and to discharge the obligation of his father Pepin to the Holy See, Charlemagne, though allied by marriage to Desiderus, King of the Lombards, dispossessed that prince of all his dominions, and put a final period to the Lombard dominion in Italy, A.D. 774. [which had subsisted for upwards of 200 years.]

2. He made his entry into Rome at the festival of Easter, was there crowned King of France and of the Lombards, and was, by Pope Adrian I., invested with the right of ratifying the election of the popes. Irene, empress of the East, sought to ally herself with Charlemagne, by the marriage of her son Constantine to the daughter of this monarch; but her subsequent inhuman conduct, in putting Constantine to death, gave ground to suspect the sincerity of her desire to that alliance.

3. In the last visit of Charlemagne to Italy, he was consecrated Emperor of the West by the hands of Pope Leo III. [A.D. 801]. It is probable, that had he chosen Rome for his residence and seat of government, and at his death transmitted to his successor an undivided dominion, that great but fallen empire might have once more been restored to lustre and respect: but Charlemagne had no fixed capital, and he divided, even in his lifetime, his dominions among his children, A.D. 806.

4. The economy of government and the domestic administration of Charlemagne merit attention. Pepin le Bref had introduced the system of annual assemblies or parliaments, held at first in March, and afterwards in May, where the chief estates of clergy and nobles were called to deliberate on the public affairs and the wants of the people. Charlemagne appointed the assemblies to be held twice in the year, in spring and in autumn. In the latter, all affairs were prepared and digested; in the former was transacted the business of legislation; and of this assembly he made the people a party, by admitting from each province or district, 12 deputies or representatives. The assembly now consisted of three estates, who each formed a separate chamber, which discussed apart the concerns of its own order, and afterwards united to communicate

their resolutions, or to deliberate on their common interests. The sovereign was never present, unless when called to ratify the decrees of the assembly.

5. Charlemagne divided the empire into provinces, and these into districts, each comprehending a certain number of counties. The districts were governed by royal envoys, chosen from the clergy and nobles, and bound to an exact visitation of their territories every three months. These envoys held yearly conventions, at which were present the higher clergy and barons, to discuss the affairs of the district, examine the conduct of its magistrates, and redress the grievances of individuals. At the general assembly, or *Champ de Mai*, the royal envoys made their report to the sovereign and states; and thus the public attention was constantly directed to all the concerns of the empire.

6. The private character of Charlemagne was most amiable and respectable. His secretary, Eginhart, has painted his domestic life in beautiful and simple colouring. The economy of his family, where the daughters of the emperor were assiduously employed in spinning and housewifery, and the sons trained by their father in the practice of all manly exercises, is characteristic of an age of great simplicity. This illustrious man died A.D. 814, in the 72nd year of his age [and was buried at Aix la Chapelle]. Contemporary with him was Haroun Alraschid, Caliph of the Saracens, equally celebrated for his conquests, excellent policy, and the wisdom and humanity of his government.

7. Of all the lawful sons of Charlemagne, Louis le Débonnaire was the only one who survived him, and who therefore succeeded without dispute to the imperial dominions, excepting Italy, which the emperor had settled on Bernard, his grandson by Pepin, his second son.

V. Manners, Government, and Customs of the Age of Charlemagne.

1: In establishing the provincial conventions under the royal envoys, Charlemagne did not entirely abolish the authority of the ancient chief magistrates, the dukes and counts. They continued to command the troops of the province, and to make the levies in stated numbers from each district. Cavalry was not numerous in the imperial armies, 12 farms being taxed to furnish only one horseman, with his armour and accoutrements. The province

supplied six months' provisions to its complement of men, and the king maintained them during the rest of the campaign.

2. The engines for the attack and defence of towns were, as in former times, the ram, the balista, catapulta, testudo, &c. Charlemagne had his ships of war stationed in the mouths of all the large rivers. He bestowed great attention on commerce. The merchants of Italy and the south of France traded to the Levant, and exchanged the commodities of Europe and Asia. Venice and Genoa were rising into commercial opulence; and the manufactures of wool, of glass, and iron, were successfully cultivated in many of the principal towns in the south of Europe.

3. The value of money was nearly the same as in the Roman empire in the age of Constantine the Great. The numerary livre, in the age of Charlemagne, was supposed to be a pound of silver, in value about three pounds sterling of English money. At present the livre [tournois] is worth tenpence halfpenny English.* Hence we ought to be cautious in forming our estimate of ancient money from its name; and from the want of this caution have arisen the most erroneous ideas of the commerce, riches, and strength of the ancient kingdoms.

4. The *Capitularia* of Charlemagne, compiled into a body, A.D. 827, were recovered from oblivion in 1531 and 1545. They present many circumstances illustrative of the manners of the times. Unless in great cities, there were no inns; the laws obliged every man to give accommodation to travellers. The chief towns were built of wood, and even the walls were of that material. The state of the mechanic arts was very low in Europe: the Saracens had brought them to great perfection. Painting and sculpture were only preserved from absolute extinction by the existing remains of ancient art. Charlemagne appears to have been anxious for the improvement of music; and the Italians are said to have instructed his French performers in the art of playing on the organ. Architecture was studied and successfully cultivated in that style termed the Gothic, which admits of great beauty, elegance, and magnificence. The composition of Mosaic appears to have been an invention of those ages.

* The *livre* is at present better known by the denomination of a *franc*; its value is now (1844) tenpence sterling.—ED.

5. The knowledge of letters was extremely low, and confined to a few of the ecclesiastics : but Charlemagne gave the utmost encouragement to literature and the sciences, inviting into his dominions of France, men eminent in those departments from Italy, and from the *Britannic isles*,* which, in those dark ages, preserved more of the light of learning than any of the western kingdoms. "For neither must the praise of Britain, Scotland, and Ireland be passed over in silence, which at that time excelled the other western nations in the cultivation of the liberal arts ; and chiefly by the care of the monks, who, in those countries, carefully revived and fostered the glory of letters, which in other parts were languishing or depressed." Murat. *Antiq. Ital. Diss.* 48. The scarcity of books in those times, and the nature of their subjects—legends, lives of the saints, &c., evince the narrow diffusion of literature.

6. The pecuniary fines for homicide, the ordeal or judgment of God, and judicial combat, were striking peculiarities in the laws and manners of the northern nations, and particularly of the Franks. With this warlike but barbarous people, revenge was esteemed honourable and meritorious. The high-spirited warrior chastised or vindicated with his own hand the injuries he had received or inflicted. The magistrate interfered, not to punish, but to reconcile, and was satisfied if he could persuade the aggressor to pay, and the injured party to accept the moderate fine which was imposed as the price of blood, and of which the measure was estimated according to the rank, the sex, and the country of the person slain. But increasing civilization abolished those barbarous distinctions. We have remarked the equal severity of the laws of the Visigoths both in the crime of murder and robbery ; and even among the Franks in the age of Charlemagne, deliberate murder was punished with death.

* 7. By their ancient laws, a party accused of any crime was allowed to produce compurgators, or a certain number of witnesses, according to the measure of the offence ; and if these declared upon oath their belief of his innocence, it was held a sufficient exculpation. Seventy-two compurgators were required to acquit a murderer or an incendiary. The flagrant perjuries occasioned by this absurd practice probably gave rise to the trial by ordeal, which

* Of these Alcuin was the most celebrated.

was termed, as it was believed to be, the judgment of God. The criminal was ordered, at the option of the judge, to prove his innocence or guilt by the ordeal of cold water, of boiling water, or red hot iron. He was tied hand and foot, and thrown into a pool to sink or swim; he was made to fetch a ring from the bottom of a vessel of boiling water, or to walk bare footed over burning plough-shares; and history records examples of those wonderful experiments having been undergone without injury or pain.

8. Another peculiarity of the laws and manners of the northern nations was judicial combat. Both in civil suits and in the trial of crimes, the party destitute of legal proofs, might challenge his antagonist to mortal combat, and rest the cause upon its issue. This sanguinary and most iniquitous custom, which [long existed in England under the name of camp-fight or trial by battle, and] may be traced to this day in the practice of duelling, had the authority of law in the court of the constable and marshal, even in the last century, in France and England.

VI.—*Retrospective View of the Affairs of the Church preceding the Age of Charlemagne.*

1. The Arian and Pelagian heresies divided the Christian Church for many ages. In the fourth century Arius, a presbyter of Alexandria, maintained the separate and inferior nature of the second Person of the Trinity, regarding Christ as the noblest of created beings, through whose agency the Creator had formed the universe. His doctrine was condemned in the council of Nice, held by Constantine, A.D. 325, who afterwards became a convert to his opinions. These for many centuries had an extensive influence, and produced the sects of the Eunomians, Semi-Arians, Eusebians, &c.

2. In the beginning of the fifth century, Pelagius and Celestius, the former a native of Britain, the latter of Ireland, denied the doctrine of original sin, and the necessity of divine grace to enlighten the understanding and purify the heart, and maintained the sufficiency of man's natural powers for the attainment of the highest degrees of piety and virtue. These tenets were ably combated by St. Augustine, and condemned by an ecclesiastical council, but have ever continued to find many supporters.

3. The most obstinate source of controversy in those

ages was regarding the worship of images ; a practice which, though at first opposed by the clergy, was afterwards, from interested motives, countenanced and vindicated by them. It was, however, long a subject of division in the Church. The emperor Leo the Isaurian, A.D. 727, attempted to suppress this idolatry, by the destruction of every statue and picture found in the churches, and by punishment of their worshippers ; but this intemperate zeal rather increased than repressed the superstition. His son Constantine Copronymus, with wiser policy, satisfied himself with procuring its condemnation by the Church [in a general council held at Constantinople, A.D. 754, see *post*, sect. 8, § 2.]

4. From the doctrines of the Platonic and Stoic philosophy, which recommended the purification of the soul by redeeming it from its subjection to the senses, arose the system of penances, mortification, religious sequestration, and monachism. After Constantine had put an end to the persecution of the Christians, many conceived it a duty to procure for themselves voluntary grievances and sufferings. They retired into caves and hermitages, and there practised the most rigorous mortifications of the flesh, by fasting, scourging, vigils, &c. This frenzy first showed itself in Egypt, in the fourth century, whence it spread all over the East, a great part of Africa, and within the limits of the bishopric of Rome. In the time of Theodosius, these devotees began to form communities or *cœnobia*, each associate binding himself by oath to observe the rules of his order. St. Benedict introduced monachism into Italy under the reign of Totila, and his order, the Benedictine, soon became extremely numerous, and most opulent, from the many rich donations made by the devout and charitable, who conceived they profited by their prayers. Benedict sent colonies into Sicily and France, whence they soon spread over all Europe.

5. In the East the *monachi solitarii* were first incorporated into *convents* by St. Basil, bishop of Cæsarea, in the middle of the fourth century ; and some time before that period, the first monasteries for women were founded in Egypt by the sister of St. Pacomo. From these, in the following age, sprung a variety of orders, under different rules. The rule of the canons regular was framed after the model of the apostolic life. The mendicants, to chastity, obedience, and poverty, added the obligation of

begging alms. The military religious orders were unknown till the age of the holy war. (See *postea*, sect. 17, § 3.) The monastic fraternities owed their reputation chiefly to the little literary knowledge which, in those ages of ignorance, they exclusively possessed.

6. In the fifth century arose a set of fanatics termed *Stylites*, or pillar-saints, who passed their lives on the tops of pillars of various height. Simeon of Syria lived 37 years on a pillar 60 feet high, and died upon it. [A.D. 451.] This frenzy prevailed in the East for many centuries.

7. Auricular confession, which had been abolished in the East in the fourth century, began to be in use in the West in the age of Charlemagne, and has ever since prevailed in the Romish church. The canonization of saints was for near twelve centuries practised by every bishop. Pope Alexander III., one of the most vicious men, first claimed and assumed this right, as the exclusive privilege of the successor of St. Peter.

8. The conquests of Charlemagne spread Christianity in the north of Europe ; but all beyond the limits of his conquests was idolatrous. Britain and Ireland had received the light of Christianity at an earlier period, but it was afterwards extinguished, and again revived under the Saxon Heptarchy.

VII. *Empire of the West under the Successors of Charlemagne.*

1. The empire of Charlemagne, raised and supported solely by his abilities, fell to pieces under his weak posterity. Louis (le Débonnaire) [*i.e.* the good natured] the only survivor of his lawful sons, was consecrated emperor and king of the Franks at Aix-la-Chapelle, A.D. 816. Among the first acts of his reign was the partition of his dominions among his children. To Pepin, his second son, he gave Aquitaine, the southern third of France ; to Louis, the youngest, Bavaria ; and he associated his eldest son Lothaire with himself in the government of the rest. The three princes quarrelled among themselves, agreeing in nothing but in hostilities against their father. They made open war against him, supported by pope Gregory IV. The pretence was, that the emperor having a younger son, Charles, born to him after this partition of his states, wanted to provide this child likewise with a share, which

could not be done but at the expense of his elder brothers. Louis was compelled to surrender himself a prisoner to his rebellious children. They confined him for a year to a monastery; till, on a new quarrel between Louis the Younger and Pepin, Lothaire once more restored his father to the throne: but his spirits were broken, his health decayed, and he finished soon after an inglorious and turbulent reign, A.D. 840.

2. The dissensions of the brothers still continued. Lothaire, now emperor, and Pepin, his brother's son, having taken up arms against the two other sons of Louis le Débonnaire, Louis of Bavaria, and Charles the Bald, were defeated by them in the battle of Fontenay, [in Burgundy, A.D. 841], where 100,000 are said to have fallen in the field. The church, in those times, was a prime organ of civil policy. A council of bishops immediately assembled, and solemnly deposed Lothaire; assuming, at the same time, an equal authority over his conquerors, whom they permitted to reign, on the express condition of submissive obedience to the supreme spiritual authority. Yet Lothaire, excommunicated and deposed, found means so to accommodate matters with his brothers, that they agreed to a new partition of the empire. By the treaty of Verdun, A.D. 843 the western part of France, termed Neustria and Aquitaine, was assigned to Charles the Bald; Lothaire, with the title of emperor, had the nominal sovereignty of Italy, and the real territory of Lorraine, Franche Compté, Provence, and the Lyonnois; the share of Louis was the kingdom of Germany.

3. Thus was Germany finally separated from the empire of the Franks [and embodied into a monarchy or government under its own kings.] On the death of Lothaire, Charles the Bald assumed the empire, or, as is said, purchased it from Pope John VIII. on the condition of holding it as a vassal of the holy see. This prince, after a weak and inglorious reign, died by poison, A.D. 877. He was the first of the French monarchs who made dignities and titles hereditary. Under the distracted reigns of the Carlovingian kings, the nobles attained great power and commanded a formidable vassalage. They strengthened themselves in their castles and fortresses, and bid defiance to the arm of government, while the country was ravaged and desolated by their feuds.

4. In the reign of Charles the Bald, France was plun-

dered by the Normans [or Northernmen], a new race of Goths from Scandinavia, who had begun their depredations even in the time of Charlemagne, checked only in their progress by the terror of his arms. In A.D. 843, they sailed up the Seine, and plundered Rouen; while another fleet entered the Loire, and laid waste the country in its vicinity, carrying, together with its spoils, men, women and children, into captivity. In the following year they attacked the coasts of England, France, and Spain, but were repelled from the last by the good conduct and courage of its Mahometan rulers. In 845, they entered the Elbe, plundered Hamburgh, and penetrated far into Germany. Eric, king of Denmark, who commanded these Normans,* sent once more a fleet into the Seine, which advanced to Paris. Its inhabitants fled, and the city was burnt. Another fleet, with little resistance, pillaged Bourdeaux. To avert the arms of these ravagers, Charles the Bald bribed them with money; and his successor, Charles the Gross, yielded them a part of his Flemish dominions. These were only incentives to fresh depredation. Paris was attacked a second time, but gallantly defended by Count Odo or Eudes, and the venerable bishop Goslin. A truce was a second time concluded, but the barbarians only changed the scene of their attack. They besieged Sens, and plundered Burgundy, while an assembly of the States held at Mentz deposed the unworthy Charles, and conferred the crown on the more deserving Eudes; who, during a reign of ten years, manfully withstood the Normans. A great part of the states of France, however, refused his title to the crown, and gave their allegiance to Charles, surnamed the Simple.

Rollo, the Norman, in 912, compelled the King of France to yield him a large portion of the territory of Neustria, and to give him his daughter in marriage. The new kingdom was now called Normandy, of which Rouen was the capital. [Rollo embraced the christian religion, subdued the ferocious spirit of his people, turned their attention from piracy to agriculture and guarded the kingdom from any farther invasion]. It is the race of those warriors whom we shall see presently the conquerors of England.

* A full account of these semi-barbarians is given in Thierry's History of the Norman Conquest.—ED.

VIII.—*Empire of the East during the Eighth and Ninth Centuries.*

1. While the new empire of the West was thus rapidly tending to dissolution, the empire of Constantinople retained yet a vestige of its ancient grandeur. It had lost its African and Syrian dependencies, and was plundered by the Saracens on the eastern frontier, and ravaged on the north and west by the Abari and Bulgarians. The capital, though splendid and refined, was a constant scene of rebellions and conspiracies; and the imperial family itself exhibited a series of the most horrid crimes and atrocities: one emperor put to death in revenge of murder and incest; another poisoned by his queen; a third assassinated in the bath by his own domestics; a fourth tearing out the eyes of his brothers; the empress Irene, respectable for her talents, but infamous for the murder of her only son. Of such complexion was that series of princes who swayed the sceptre of the east for nearly two hundred years.

2. In the latter part of this period, a most violent controversy was maintained respecting the worship of images, and they were alternately destroyed and replaced according to the humour of the sovereign. The female sex were their most zealous supporters. This was not the only subject of division in the Christian church: the doctrines of the Manichees were then extremely prevalent, and the sword was frequently employed to support and propagate their tenets.

3. The misfortunes of the empire were increased by an invasion of the Russians from the Palus Mæotis and Euxine. In the reign of Leo, named the philosopher, the Turks, a new race of barbarians, of Scythian or Tartarian breed, began to make effectual inroads on its territories; and much about the same time its domestic calamities were aggravated by the separation of the Greek from the Latin church, of which we shall treat under the following section.

IX.—*State of the Church in the Eighth and Ninth Centuries.*

1. The Popes had begun to acquire a temporal authority under Pepin le Bref and Charlemagne, from the donations of territory made by those princes, and they were now

gradually extending a spiritual jurisdiction over all the Christian kingdoms. Nicholas I. proclaimed to the whole world his paramount judgment in appeal from the sentences of all spiritual judicatories; his power of assembling councils of the church, and of regulating it by the canons of those councils; the right of exercising his authority by legates in all the kingdoms of Europe, and the control of the pope over all princes and governors. Literary imposture gave its support to these pretences; the forgery of the epistles of Isidórus was not completely exposed till the sixteenth century. Among the prerogatives of the popes was the regulation of the marriages of all crowned heads, by the extreme extension of the prohibitions of the canon law, with which they alone had the power of dispensing.

2. One extraordinary event (if true) afforded, in the ninth century, a ludicrous interruption to the boasted succession of regular bishops from the days of St. Peter—the election of a female pope, who is said to have ably governed the church for three years, till detected by the birth of a child. Till the reformation by Luther, this event was neither regarded by the catholics as incredible nor disgraceful to the church; since that time its truth or falsehood has been the subject of keen controversy between the protestants and catholics; and the evidence for the latter seems to preponderate.

3. While the church was thus gradually extending its influence, and its head arrogating the control over sovereign princes, these, by a singular interchange of character, seem, in those ages, to have fixed their chief attention on spiritual concerns. Kings, dukes, and counts, neglecting their temporal duties, shut themselves up in cloisters, and spent their lives in prayers and penances. Ecclesiastics were employed in all the departments of secular government; and these alone conducted all public measures and state negotiations, which of course they directed to the great objects of advancing the interests of the church, and establishing the paramount authority of the holy see.

4. At this period, however, when the popedom seemed to have attained its highest ascendancy, it suffered a severe wound in that remarkable schism which separated the patriarchates of Rome and Constantinople, or the Greek and Latin churches. The Roman pontiff had hitherto claimed the right of nominating the patriarch of Constantinople. The emperor, Michael III., denied this

right; and deposing the pope's patriarch, Ignatius, appointed the celebrated Photius in his stead. Pope Nicholas I. resented this affront with a high spirit, and deposed and excommunicated Photius, A.D. 863, who, in his turn, pronounced a similar sentence against the pope. The church was divided, each patriarch being supported by many bishops and their dependent clergy. The Greek and Latin bishops had long differed in many points of practice and discipline, as the celibacy of the clergy, the shaving of their beards, &c.; but, in reality, the prime source of division was the ambition of the rival pontiffs, and the jealousy of the Greek emperors, unwilling to admit the control of Rome, and obstinately asserting every prerogative which they conceived to be annexed to the capital of the Roman empire. As neither party would yield its pretensions, the division of the Greek and Latin churches became from this time permanent [A.D. 1054.]

5. Amid these ambitious contests for ecclesiastical power and pre-eminence, the Christian religion itself was disgraced, both by the practice and the principles of its teachers. Worldly ambition, gross voluptuousness, and grosser ignorance, characterized all ranks of the clergy; and the open sale of benefices placed them often in the hands of the basest and most profligate of men. Yet the character of Photius forms an illustrious exception. Though bred a statesman and a soldier, and in both these respects of great reputation, he attained, by his singular abilities, learning, and worth, the highest dignity of the church. His *Bibliotheca* is a monument of the most various knowledge, erudition, and critical judgment.

X. *Of the Saracens in the Eighth and Ninth Centuries.*

1. In the beginning of the eighth century, the Saracens [under the Caliphate of Walid, A.D. 711] subverted the monarchy of the Visigoths in Spain, and easily overran the country. They had lately founded in Africa the empire of Morocco, which was governed by Muza, viceroy of the Caliph Valid Almanzor. Muza sent his general, Taric, into Spain, who, in one memorable engagement [which lasted four days fought at Xeres] A.D. 713, stripped the Gothic king Rodrigo of his crown and life. The conquerors, satisfied with the sovereignty of the country, left the vanquished Goths in possession of their property, their laws and their religion. Abdallah the Moor married

the widow of Rodrigo, and the two nations formed a perfect union. One small part of the rocky country of Asturia alone adhered to its Christian prince, Pelagius, who maintained his little sovereignty, [the kingdom of Oviedo or Leon] and transmitted it inviolate to his successors.

2. The Moors pushed their conquest beyond the Pyrenees, [even to the gates of Rome]; but division arising among their emirs, and civil wars ensuing, Louis le Débonnaire took advantage of the turbulent state of the country, and invaded and seized Barcelona. The Moorish sovereignty in the north of Spain was weakened by throwing off its dependence on the caliphs; and at this juncture the Christian sovereignty of the Asturias, under Alphonso the Chaste, began to make vigorous encroachments on the territory of the Moors. Navarre and Arragon, roused by this example, chose each a Christian king, and boldly asserted their liberty and independence.

3. While the Moors of Spain were thus losing ground in the north, they were highly flourishing in the southern parts of that kingdom. Abdalrahman, the last heir of the family of the Omniades (the Abassidæ now enjoying the Caliphate), was recognised as the true representative of the ancient line by the southern Moors. He fixed the seat of his government at Cordova, which, from that time, for two centuries, was the capital of a splendid monarchy. This period, from the middle of the eighth to the middle of the tenth century, is the most brilliant era of Arabian magnificence. Whilst Haroun Alraschid made Bagdat illustrious by the splendour of the arts and sciences, the Moors of Cordova vied with their brethren of Asia in the same honorable pursuits, and were undoubtedly, at this period, the most enlightened of the states in Europe. Under a series of able princes, they gained the highest reputation, both in arts and arms, of all the nations of the west.

4. The Saracens were at this time extending their conquest in almost every quarter of the world. The Mahometan religion was professed over a great part of India, and all along the eastern and Mediterranean coast of Africa. The African Saracens invaded Sicily, and projected the conquest of Italy. They actually laid siege to Rome, which was nobly defended by Pope Leo IV. They were repulsed, their ships were dispersed by a storm, and their army was cut to pieces, A.D. 848.

5. The Saracens might have raised an immense empire, had they acknowledged only one head; but their states were always disunited. Egypt, Morocco, Spain, India, had all their separate sovereigns, who, though they continued to respect the caliph of Bagdat as the successor of the prophet, acknowledged no temporal subjection to his government.

XI.—*Empire of the West and Italy in the Tenth and Eleventh Centuries.*

1. The empire founded by Charlemagne now subsisted only in name. Arnulph, a bastard son of Carloman, possessed Germany. Italy was divided between Guy, duke of Spoletto, and Berenger, duke of Friuli, who had received these duchies from Charles the Bald. France, though claimed by Arnulph, was governed by Endes. Thus the empire in reality consisted only of a part of Germany, while France, Spain, Italy, Burgundy, and the countries between the Maes and Rhine, were all subject to different powers. The emperors were at this time elected by the bishops and grandees, all of whom claimed a voice. In this manner Louis, the son of Arnulph, the last of the blood of Charlemagne, was chosen emperor after the death of his father [by the states of Germany, a custom that descended in Germany to modern times]. On his demise, Otho duke of Saxony, by his credit with his brother grandees, conferred the empire on Conrad duke of Franconia, at whose death, Henry, surnamed the Fowler, son of the same duke Otho, was elected emperor, A.D. 918.

2. Henry I. (the Fowler), a prince of great abilities, introduced order and good government into the empire. He united the grandees, and curbed their usurpations; built, embellished, and fortified the cities, and enforced with great rigour the execution of the laws in the repression of all enormities. He had been consecrated by his own bishops, and maintained no correspondence with the see of Rome.

3. His son Otho (the Great), A.D. 938, again united Italy to the empire [which had been a distinct kingdom since the revolution that took place upon the death of Charles the Fat (A.D. 888)], and kept the popedom in complete subjection. He made Denmark tributary to the imperial crown, annexed the crown of Bohemia to his own dominions, and seemed to aim at a paramount authority over all the sovereigns of Europe.

4. Otho owed his ascendancy in Italy to the disorders of the papacy. Formósus, twice excommunicated by pope John VIII., had himself arrived at the triple crown. On his death, his rival, pope Stephen VII., caused his body to be dug out of the grave, and after trial for his crimes, condemned it to be flung into the Tiber. The friends of Formósus fished up the corpse, and had interest to procure the deposition of Stephen, who was strangled in prison. A succeeding pope, Sergius III., again dug up the ill-fated carcase, and once more threw it into the river. Two infamous women, Marozia and Theodora, managed for many years the popedom, and filled the chair of St. Peter with their own gallants, or their adulterous offspring. Such was the state of the holy see, when Berenger I., duke of Friuli, disputed the sovereignty of Italy with Hugh of Arles. The Italian states and pope John XII., who took part against Berenger II., invited Otho to compose the disorders of the country [A.D. 951]. He entered Italy, defeated Berenger, and was consecrated emperor by the pope, with the titles of Cæsar and Augustus ; in return for which honours he confirmed the donations made to the holy see by his predecessors, Pepin, Charlemagne, and Louis le Débonnaire, A.D. 962.

5. But John XII. was false to his new ally. He made his peace with Berenger, and both turned their arms against the emperor. Otho flew back to Rome, and revenged himself by the trial and deposition of the pope ; but he had scarcely left the city, when John, by the aid of his party, displaced his rival Leo VIII. Otho once more returned, and took exemplary vengeance on his enemies, by hanging one half of the senate. Calling together the Lateran Council, he created a new pope, and obtained from the assembled bishops a solemn acknowledgement of the absolute right of the emperor to elect to the papacy, to give the investiture of the crown of Italy, and to nominate to all vacant bishoprics ; concessions no longer observed than while the emperor was present to enforce them.

6. Such was the state of Rome and Italy under Otho the Great, [who died A.D. 973,] and it continued to be much the same under his successors for [nearly] a century. The emperors asserted their sovereignty over Italy and the popedom, though with a constant resistance on the part of the Romans, and a general repugnance of the pope,

when once established. In those ages of ecclesiastical profligacy it was not unusual to put up the popedom to sale. Benedict VIII. and John XIX., two brothers, publicly bought the chair of St. Peter, one after the other; and to keep it in their family, it was purchased afterwards by their friends for Benedict IX., a child of twelve years of age. Three popes, each pretending regular election and equal right, agreed first to divide the revenues between them, and afterwards sold all their shares to a fourth.

7. The emperor Henry III. a prince of great ability, strenuously vindicated his right to supply the pontifical chair, [deposed three *schismatical* or *anti* popes] and created three successive popes without opposition. [He died A.D. 1056, leaving Henry IV., an infant of six years old. See *postea*, sect. 14, § 6.]

XII.—*History of Britain from its earliest period down to the Norman Conquest.*

1. The history of Britain has been postponed to this time, in order that it may be considered in one connected view, from its earliest period to the end of the Anglo-Saxon government.

We strive not to pierce through that mist of obscurity which veils the original population of the British Isles; remarking only as a matter of high probability, that they derived their first inhabitants from the Celtæ of Gaul. Their authentic history commences with the first Roman invasion; and we learn from Cæsar and Tacitus, that the country was at that period in a state very remote from barbarism. It was divided into a number of small independent sovereignties, each prince having a regular army and a fixed revenue. The manners, language, and religion of the people were the same with those of the Gallic Celtæ. The last was the Druidical system, whose influence pervaded every department of the government, and by its power over the minds of the people, supplied the imperfection of the laws.

2. Julius Cæsar, after the conquest of Gaul, turned his eyes towards Britain. He landed on the southern coast of the island, 55 B.C.; and meeting with most obstinate resistance, though on the whole gaining some advantage, he found himself obliged, after a short campaign, to withdraw for the winter into Gaul. He returned in the fol-

lowing summer with a great increase of force, an army of 20,000 foot, a competent body of horse, and a fleet of 800 sail. The independent chiefs of the Britons united their forces under Cassibelaunus king of the Trinobantes, and, encountering the legions with great resolution, displayed all the ability of practised warriors. But the contest was vain. Cæsar advanced into the country, burnt Verulamium [St. Albans] the capital of Cassibelaunus, and, after forcing the Britons into articles of submission, returned to Gaul.

3. The domestic disorders of Italy gave tranquillity to the Britons for nearly a century; but, in the reign of Claudius, the conquest of the island was determined. The emperor landed in Britain, and compelled the submission of the south-eastern provinces. Ostorius Scapula defeated Caractacus, who was sent prisoner to Rome. Suetonius Paulinus, the general of Nero, destroyed Mona (Anglesey, or, as others think, Man), the centre of the druidical superstition. The Iceni (inhabitants of Norfolk and Suffolk), under their queen Boadicea, attacked several of the Roman settlements. London, with its Roman garrison, was burnt to ashes. But a decisive battle ensued, in which 80,000 of the Britons fell in the field, [and Boadicea to prevent the victors from taking her prisoner, heroically poisoned herself] A.D. 61. The reduction of the island, however, was not completed till 30 years afterwards, in the reign of Titus, by Julius Agricola; who, after securing the Roman province against invasion from the Caledonians by walls and garrisons, reconciled the southern inhabitants, by the introduction of Roman arts and improvements, to the government of their conquerors. Under Severus, the Roman province was far extended into the north of Scotland.

4. With the decline of the Roman power in the west, the southern Britons recovered their liberty, but it was only to become the object of incessant predatory invasion from their brethren of the north. The Romans, after rebuilding the wall of Severus, finally bid adieu to Britain, A.D. 448. The Picts and Caledonians now broke down upon the south, ravaging and desolating the country, though without a purpose of conquest, merely, as it appears, for the supply of their temporary wants. After repeated application for aid from Rome, without success, the Britons meanly solicited the Saxons of Germany for succour and protection.

5. The Saxons received the embassy with great satisfaction. Britain had been long known to them in their piratical voyages to its coasts. They landed to the amount of 1600, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, A.D. 450, and joining the South Britons, soon compelled the Scots to retire to their mountains. They next turned their thoughts to the entire reduction of the Britons, and receiving large reinforcements of their countrymen, after an obstinate contest of nearly 150 years, they reduced the whole of England under the Saxon government. Seven distinct provinces became as many independent kingdoms.

6. The history of the Saxon Heptarchy is uninteresting, from its obscurity and confusion. It is sufficient to mark the duration of the several kingdoms, till their union under Egbert. Kent began in 455, and lasted, under 17 princes, till 827, when it was subdued by the West Saxons. Under Ethelbert, one of its kings, the Saxons were converted to Christianity by the monk Augustine. Northumberland began in 597, and lasted, under 23 kings, till 792. East Anglia began in 575, and ended in 793. Mercia subsisted from 582 to 827. Essex had 14 princes from 527 to 747; Sussex only five, before its reduction under the dominion of the West Saxons, about 600. Wessex, which finally subdued and united the whole of the Heptarchy, began in 519, and had not subsisted above 80 years, when Cadwalla, its king, conquered and annexed Sussex to his dominions. As there was no fixed rule of succession, it was the policy of the Saxon princes to put to death all the rivals of their intended successor. From this cause, and from their passion for celibacy, the royal families were nearly extinguished in the kingdoms of the Heptarchy; and Egbert, prince of the West Saxons, remained the sole surviving descendant of the Saxon conquerors of Britain. This circumstance, so favourable to his ambition, prompted him to attempt the conquest of the Heptarchy. He succeeded in that enterprise; and, by his victorious arms and judicious policy, the whole of the separate states were united into one great kingdom, A.D. 827, near 400 years after the first arrival of the Saxons in Britain.

7. England, thus united, was far from enjoying tranquillity. The piratical Normans or Danes had for fifty years desolated her coasts, and continued for some centuries after this period to be a perpetual scourge to the

country. Under Alfred (the Great), grandson of Egbert, the kingdom was from this cause reduced to extreme wretchedness. The heroic Alfred, in one year, engaged and defeated the Danes in eight battles; when a new irruption of their countrymen forced him to solicit a peace, which these pirates constantly interrupted by new hostilities. The monarch himself was compelled to seek his safety for many months in an obscure quarter of the country, till the disorders of the Danish army offered a fair opportunity, which he improved to the entire defeat of his enemies. He might have cut them all to pieces, but he chose rather to spare, and to incorporate them with his English subjects. This clemency did not restrain them from attempting a new invasion; but they were again defeated with immense loss: and the extreme severity now from necessity shown to the vanquished, had the effect of suspending, for several years, the Danish depredations.

8. Alfred, whether considered in his public or private character, deserves to be reckoned among the best and greatest of princes. He united the most enterprising and heroic spirit with consummate prudence and moderation; the utmost vigour of authority with the most engaging gentleness of manner; the most exemplary justice with the greatest lenity; the talents of the statesman, and the man of letters, with the intrepid resolution and conduct of the general. He found the kingdom in the most miserable condition, to which anarchy, domestic barbarism, and foreign hostility, could reduce it: he brought it to a pitch of eminence surpassing, in many respects, the situation of its contemporary nations.

9. Alfred divided England into counties, with their subdivisions of hundreds and tithings. The tithing or decennary consisted of ten families, over which presided a tithing man, or borgholder; and ten of these composed the hundred. Every householder was answerable for his family, and the tithing-man, for all within his tithing. In the decision of differences, the tithing-man had the assistance of the rest of his decennary. An appeal lay from the decennary to the court of the hundred, which was assembled every four weeks; and the cause was tried by a jury of twelve freeholders, sworn to do impartial justice. An annual meeting of the hundred was held for the regulation of the police of the district. The county-

court, superior to that of the hundred, and consisting of all the freeholders, met twice a year, after Michaelmas and Easter, to determine appeals from the hundreds, and settle disputes between the inhabitants of different hundreds. The ultimate appeal from all these courts lay to the king in council; and the frequency of these appeals prompted Alfred to the most extreme circumspection in the appointment of his judges. He composed for the regulation of these courts, and of his kingdom, a body of laws, the basis of the common law of England.

10. Alfred gave every encouragement to the cultivation of letters, as the best means of eradicating barbarism. He invited, from every quarter of Europe, the learned to reside in his dominions, established schools, and is said to have founded the university of Oxford. He was himself a most accomplished scholar for the age in which he lived, as appears from the works he composed; poetical apologues, the translation of the histories of Bede and Orosius, and of Boethius on the consolation of philosophy. In every view of his character, we must regard Alfred the Great as one of the best and wisest men that ever occupied the regal seat. He died in the vigour of his age, A.D. 901, after a glorious reign of 29 years and a half.

11. The admirable institutions of Alfred were partially and feebly enforced under his successors; and England, still a prey to the ravages of the Danes and intestine disorder, relapsed into confusion and barbarism. The reigns of Edward the elder, the son of Alfred, and of his successors, Athelstan, Edmund, and Edred, were tumultuous and anarchical. The clergy began to extend their authority over the throne, and a series of succeeding princes were the obsequious slaves of their tyranny and ambition. Under Ethelred, A.D. 981, the Danes seriously projected the conquest of England, and led by Sweyn king of Denmark, and Olaf king of Norway, made a formidable descent, won several important battles, and were restrained from the destruction of London only by a dastardly submission, and a promise of tribute to be paid, by the inglorious Ethelred. The English nobility were ashamed of their prince, and seeing no other relief to the kingdom, made a tender of the crown to the Danish monarch. On the death of Sweyn, Ethelred attempted to regain his kingdom, but found in Canute the son of Sweyn, a prince determined to support his claims, which, on the death

of Ethelred, were gallantly but ineffectually resisted by his son Edmund Ironside. At length a partition of the kingdom was made between Canute and Edmund, which, after a few months, the Danes annulled by the murder of Edmund, thus securing to their monarch Canute the throne of all England, A.D. 1017. Edmund left two children, Edgar Atheling, and Margaret, afterwards wife to Malcolm Kanmore, king of Scotland.

12. Canute, the most powerful monarch of his time, sovereign of Denmark, Norway, and England, swayed for 17 years the sceptre of England with a firm and vigorous hand; severe in the beginning of his reign, while his government was insecure, but mild and equitable when possessed of a settled dominion. He left (A.D. 1036) three sons, Sweyn, who was crowned king of Norway, Harold, who succeeded to the throne of England, and Hardicanute, Sovereign of Denmark. Harold, a merciless tyrant, died in the fourth year of his reign, and was succeeded by Hardicanute, who, after a violent administration of two years, died in a fit of debauch. The English seized this opportunity of shaking off the Danish yoke; and they conferred the crown on Edward, a younger son of Ethelred, rejecting the preferable right of Edgar Atheling, the son of Edmund, who, unfortunately for his pretensions, was, at this time, abroad in Hungary. Edward, surnamed the Confessor (A.D. 1041), reigned weakly and ingloriously for 25 years, [and died without issue, A.D. 1066, when the Saxon dynasty became extinct.] The rebellious attempts of Godwin, Earl of Wessex, aimed at nothing less than an usurpation of the crown, and, on his death, his son Harold, cherishing secretly the same views of ambition, had the address to secure to his interest a very formidable party in the kingdom. Edward, to defeat these views, bequeathed the crown to William Duke of Normandy, a prince whose great abilities and personal prowess had rendered his name illustrious over Europe.

13. On the death of Edward the Confessor, 1066, the usurper Harold took possession of the throne, which the intrepid Norman determined immediately to reclaim as his inheritance of right. He made the most formidable preparations, aided in this age of romantic enterprise by many of the Sovereign Princes, and a vast body of the nobility, from the different continental kingdoms. A

Norwegian fleet of 300 sail entered the Humber; and disembarking their troops, were, after one successful engagement, defeated by the English army in the interest of Harold. William landed his army on the coast of Sussex, to the amount of 60,000, and the English, under Harold, flushed with their recent success, hastily advanced to meet him, imprudently resolved to venture all on one decisive battle. The total rout and discomfiture of the English army in the field of Hastings (14th October, 1066), and the death of Harold, after some fruitless attempts of further resistance, put William duke of Normandy in possession of the throne of England.

XIII.—*Of the Government, Laws, and Manners of the Anglo-Saxons.*

1. The government, laws, and manners of the Anglo-Saxons have become the subject of inquiry to modern writers, as being supposed to have had their influence in the formation of the British constitution. The government of the Saxons was the same as that of all the ancient Germanic nations, and they naturally retained in their new settlement in Britain, a policy similar to their accustomed usages. Their subordination was chiefly a military one, the king having no more authority than what belonged to the general, or military leader. There was no strict rule of succession to the throne; for although the king was generally chosen from the family of the last prince, the choice usually fell on the person of the best capacity for government. In some instances the destination of the last sovereign regulated the choice. We know very little of the nature of the Anglo-Saxon government, or of the distinct rights of the sovereign and people.

2. One institution common to all the kingdoms of the Heptarchy was the Wittenagemot, or assembly of the wise men, whose consent was requisite for enacting laws, and ratifying the chief acts of public administration. The bishops and abbots formed a part of this assembly, as did the aldermen, or earls, and governors of counties. The Wites, or wise men, are discriminated from the prelates and nobility, and have by some been supposed to have been the representatives of the commons. But we hear nothing of election or representation in those periods, and we must therefore presume that they were merely landholders, or men of considerable estate, who, from their

weight and consequence in the country, were held entitled, without any election, to take a share in the public deliberations.

3. The Anglo-Saxon government was extremely aristocratical; the regal authority being very limited, the rights of the people little known or regarded, and the nobility possessing much uncontrolled and lawless rule over their dependents. The offices of government were hereditary in their families, and they commanded the whole military force of their respective provinces. So strict was the *clientéla* between these nobles and their vassals, that the murder of a vassal was compensated by a fine paid to his lord.

4. There were three ranks of the people, the nobles, the free, and the slaves. The nobles were either the king's thanes, who held their lands directly from the sovereign, or lesser thanes, who held lands from the former. One law of Athelstan declared that a merchant who had made three voyages on his own account was entitled to the dignity of thane; another decreed the same rank to a ceorle, or husbandman, who was able to purchase five hides of land, and had a chapel, a kitchen, a hall, and a bell. The ceorles, or freemen of the lower rank, occupied the farms of the thanes, for which they paid rent, and they were removeable at the pleasure of their lord. The slaves, or villains, were either employed in domestic purposes or in cultivating the lands. A master was fined for the murder of his slave; and if he mutilated him, the slave recovered his freedom.

5. Under this aristocratical government there were some traces of the ancient Germanic democracy. The courts of the decennary, the hundred, and the county, were a considerable restraint on the power of the nobles. In the county courts the freeholders met twice a year to determine appeals by the majority of suffrages. The alderman presided in those courts, but had no vote; he received a third of the fines, the remaining two-thirds devolving to the king, which was a great part of the royal revenue. Pecuniary fines were the ordinary atonement for every species of crime, and the modes of proof were the ordeal by fire or water, or by compurgators. (See *supra*, part II., sect. 5, § 7.)

6. As to the military force, the expense of defending the state lay equally on all the land, every five hides or

ploughs being taxed to furnish a soldier. There were 243,600 hides in England, consequently the ordinary military force consisted of 48,720 men.

7. The king's revenue, besides the fines imposed by the courts, consisted partly of his demesnes of property-lands, which were extensive, and partly in imposts on boroughs and sea-ports. The Danegeld was a tax imposed by the states, either for payment of tribute exacted by the Danes, or for defending the kingdom against them. By the custom of gavelkind, the land was divided equally among all the male children of the deceased proprietor. Bookland was that which was held by charter; and folkland, what was held by tenants removeable at pleasure.*

8. The Anglo-Saxons were behind the Normans in every point of civilization; and the conquest was therefore to them a real advantage, as it led to material improvement in arts, science, government and laws.

XIV.—*State of Europe during the Tenth, Eleventh, and Twelfth Centuries.*

1. France, from the extent and splendour of its dominion under Charlemagne, had dwindled to a shadow under his weak posterity. At the end of the Carlovingian period, France comprehended neither Normandy, Dauphiné, nor Provence. On the death of Louis V. (Fainéant†), the crown ought to have devolved on his uncle, Charles of Brabant, as the last male of the race of Charlemagne; but Hugh Capet, lord of Picardy and Champagne,‡ the most powerful of the French nobles, was elected sovereign by the voice of his brother peers, A.D. 987. The kingdom, torn by parties, suffered much domestic misery under the reign of Hugh, and that of his successor Robert, who was the victim of papal tyranny, for daring to marry a distant cousin without the dispensation of the church.

2. The prevailing passion of the times was pilgrimage and chivalrous enterprise. In this career of adventure, the Normans most remarkably distinguished themselves. In 983, they relieved the prince of Salerno, by expelling the Saracens from his territory. They did a similar ser-

* The real meaning of these words, "bookland" and "folkland," has been a subject of disquisition, and the precise effect of these terms is far from being settled.—ED.

† Slothful.

‡ He was also count of Paris, duke of France and Neustria.—ED.

vice to Pope Benedict VIII. and the Duke of Capua; while another band of their countrymen fought first against the Greeks and afterwards against the popes, always selling their services to those who best rewarded them. William Fierabras* and his brothers Humphrey, Robert, and Richard, kept the pope a prisoner for a year at Benevento, and forced the court of Rome to yield Capua to Richard, and Apulia and Calabria to Robert, with the investiture of Sicily, if he should gain the country from the Saracens. In 1101, Rogero the Norman completed the conquest of Sicily, of which the popes continued to be the lords paramount.

3. The north of Europe was in those periods extremely barbarous. Russia received the Christian religion in the eighth century. Sweden, after its conversion in the ninth century, relapsed into idolatry, as did Hungary, and Bohemia. The Constantinopolitan empire defended its frontiers with difficulty against the Bulgarians on the west, and against the Turks and Arabians on the east and north.

4. In Italy, excepting the territory of the popedom, the principalities of the independent nobles, and the states of Venice and Genoa, the greatest part of the country was now in the possession of the Normans. Venice and Genoa were rising gradually to great opulence from commerce. Venice was for some ages tributary to the emperors of Germany. In the tenth century its doge assumed the title of Duke of Dalmatia, of which the republic had acquired the property by conquest, as well as of Istria, Spalatro, Ragusa, and Narenza.

5. Spain was chiefly possessed by the Moors; the Christians retaining only about a fourth of the kingdom, namely, Asturia, part of Castile and Catalonia, Navarre, and Arragon. Portugal was likewise occupied by the Moors. Their capital was Cordova, the seat of luxury and magnificence. In the tenth century, the Moorish dominions were split among a number of petty sovereigns, who were constantly at war with each other; but such, unfortunately, was likewise the situation of the Christian part of the kingdom; and it was no uncommon policy for the Christian princes to form alliances with the Moors against each other. Besides these, the country abounded with independent lords, who made war their profession, and performed the office of champions in de-

*Iron arm.

ciding the quarrels of princes, or enlisting themselves in their service, with all their vassals and attendants. Of these, termed *Cavelleros andantes*, or knights-errant, the most distinguished was Rodrigo the Cid, who undertook for his sovereign, Alphonso, king of Old Castile, to conquer the kingdom of New Castile, and achieved it with success, obtaining the government of Valencia as the reward of his services.

6. The contentions between the imperial and papal powers make a distinguished figure in those ages. Henry III. vindicated the imperial right to fill the chair of St. Peter, and nominated three successive popes, without the intervention of a council of the church. But in the minority of his son, Henry IV., this right was frequently interrupted, and Alexander II. kept his seat, though the emperor named another in his place. It was the lot of this emperor to experience the utmost extent of papal insolence and tyranny. After a spirited contest with Gregory VII.,* in which the pope was twice his prisoner, and the emperor as often excommunicated and deposed, Henry fell at length the victim of ecclesiastical vengeance. Urban II., a successor of Gregory, prompted the two sons of Henry to rebel against their father; and his misfortunes were terminated by imprisonment and death in 1106. The same contest went on under a succession of popes and emperors, but ended commonly in favour of the former. Frederic I. (Barbarossa), a prince of high spirit, after an indignant denial of the supremacy of Alexander III. and a refusal of the customary homage, was at length compelled to kiss his feet, and appease his holiness by a large cession of territory. Pope Celestinus kicked off the imperial crown of Henry VI. while doing homage on his knees, but made amends for this insolence by the gift of Naples and Sicily, from which Henry had expelled the Normans. These territories now became an appanage of the empire, 1194. The succeeding popes rose on the pretensions of their predecessors, till at length Innocent III., in the beginning of the 13th century, established the powers of the popedom on a settled basis, and obtained a positive acknowledgement of the papal supremacy, or the right *principaliter et finaliter* to confer the imperial crown.

* Gregory VII. was the first pope who seriously attempted to make all Christian kings submit to his authority, in temporal as well as spiritual matters.--ED.

It was the same Pope Innocent, whom we shall presently see the disposer of the crown of England in the reign of the tyrant John.

XV.—History of England in the Eleventh, Twelfth and part of the Thirteenth Centuries.

1. The consequence of the battle of Hastings was the [tardy] submission of all England to William the Conqueror. The character of this prince was spirited, haughty, and tyrannical, yet not without a portion of the generous affections. He disgusted his English subjects by the strong partiality he shewed to his Norman followers, preferring them to all offices of trust and dignity. A conspiracy arose from these discontents, which William defeated, and avenged with signal rigour and cruelty. He determined henceforward to treat the English as a conquered people; a policy which involved his reign in perpetual commotions, which, while they robbed him of all peace of mind, aggravated the tyranny of his disposition. To his own children he owed the severest of his troubles. His eldest son Robert rose in rebellion, to wrest from him the sovereignty of Maine; and his foreign subjects took part with the rebel. William led against them an army of English, and was on the point of perishing in fight by his son's hand. Philip I. of France had aided this rebellion, which was avenged by William, who carried havoc and devastation into the heart of his kingdom, but was killed in the enterprise by [the consequences of] a fall from his horse, 1087. [He died in the 63rd year of his age, in the 21st of his reign over England, and the 54th of that over Normandy.] He bequeathed England to William, his second son; to Robert he left Normandy; and to Henry, his youngest son, the property of his mother Matilda.

2. William the Conqueror introduced into England the feudal law, dividing the whole kingdom, excepting the royal demesnes, into baronies, and bestowing the most of these, under the tenure of military service, on his Norman followers.* By the forest laws, he reserved to

* And though the time of this great revolution in our landed property cannot be ascertained with exactness, yet there are some circumstances that may lead us to a probable conjecture concerning it. For we learn from the Saxon chronicle, A.D. 1085, that in the 19th year of King William's reign, an invasion was apprehended from Denmark; and the mili-

himself the exclusive privilege of killing game all over the kingdom ; a restriction resented by his subjects above every other mark of servitude. Preparatory to the introduction of the feudal tenures, he planned and accomplished a general survey of all the lands in the kingdom, with a distinct specification of their extent, nature, value, names of their proprietors, and an enumeration of every class of inhabitants who lived on them. This most valuable record, called *Doomsday Book*, [was finished A.D. 1086] is preserved in the English Exchequer, and is now printed.

3. William II. [who from the colour of his hair was surnamed Rufus], inherited the vices without any of the virtues of his father. His reign is distinguished by no event of importance ; and after the defeat of one conspiracy in its outset, presents nothing but a dull career of unresisted despotism. After a reign of 13 years he was killed when hunting, by the random shot of an arrow, 1100. The crown of England should have devolved on his elder brother Robert ; but his absence on a crusade in Palestine [*postea*, sect. 17, § 2] made way for the unopposed succession of his younger brother Henry, who, by his marriage with Matilda, the niece of Edgar Atheling, united the last remnant of the Saxon with the Norman line. With the most criminal ambition he now invaded his brother's dominions of Normandy ; and Robert, on his return, was defeated in battle, and detained for life a prisoner in England. The crimes of Henry were expiated by his misfortunes. His only son was drowned in his passage from Normandy. [A.D. 1120.] His daughter Matilda, married first to the Emperor Henry V. and afterwards to Geoffrey Plantagenet of Anjou, was destined

tary constitution of the Saxons being then laid aside, and no other introduced in its stead, the kingdom was wholly defenceless ; which occasioned the king to bring over a large army of Normans and Bretons, who were quartered upon every landowner, and greatly oppressed the people. This apparent weakness, together with the grievances occasioned by a foreign force, might co-operate with the king's remonstrances, and the better incline the nobility to listen to his proposals for putting them in a posture of defence. For, as soon as the danger was over, the king held a great council to inquire into the state of the nation ; the immediate consequence of which was, the compiling of the great survey, called *Doomsday-Book*, which was finished in the next year ; and, in the latter end of that very year, the king was attended by all his nobility at Sarum ; where all the principal landowners submitted their lands to the yoke of military tenure, became the king's vassals, and did homage and fealty to his person. (Cap. 52. Wilk. 228.) This may possibly have been the era of formally introducing the feudal tenures by law. (*Blackstone's Comm. li. c. 4, p. 49.*)

to be his successor; but the popularity of his nephew Stephen, son of the Count of Blois, defeated this intention. Henry I. died in Normandy, after a reign of 35 years, A.D. 1135; and, in spite of his destination to Matilda, Stephen seized the vacant throne. The party of Matilda, headed by her natural brother, the Earl of Gloucester, engaged, defeated, and made Stephen prisoner. Matilda, in her turn, mounted the throne; but, unpopular from the tyranny of her disposition, she was solemnly deposed by the prevailing party of her rival, and Stephen once more restored. He found, however, in Henry Plantagenet, the son of Matilda, a more formidable competitor. Of a noble and intrepid spirit, while yet a boy, he resolved to reclaim his hereditary crown; and, landing in England, won by his prowess, and the favour of a just cause, a great part of the kingdom to his interest. By treaty with Stephen, who was allowed to reign for life, he secured the succession at his death, which soon after ensued, 1154.

4. Henry II., a prince in every sense deserving of the throne, began his reign with the reformation of all the abuses of the government of his predecessors; revoking all impolitic grants, abolishing partial immunities, regulating the administration of justice, and establishing the freedom of the towns by charters, which are at this day the basis of the national liberty. Happy in the affections of his people, and powerful in the vast extent of additional territory he enjoyed on the continent in right of his father and of his wife, the heiress of a great portion of France, his reign had every promise of prosperity and happiness; but from one fatal source, these pleasing prospects were all destroyed. Thomas à Becket was raised by Henry from obscurity to the office of Chancellor of England. On the vacancy of the see of Canterbury, the king, desirous of his aid in the correction of ecclesiastical abuses, conferred the primacy on his favourite, and the arrogant Becket availed himself of that authority to abase the prerogative of his sovereign, and exalt the spiritual power above the crown. It was disputed whether a priest could be tried for a murder, and punished by the civil court. It was determined in the affirmative by the council of Clarendon, against the opinion of Becket. Pope Alexander III. annulled the decree of council; and Becket, who took part with the pope, was deprived by Henry of all

his dignities and estates. He [retired to France and] avenged himself by the excommunication of the king's ministers; and Henry, in return, prohibited all intercourse with the see of Rome. At length both parties found it their interest to come to a good understanding. Becket was restored to favour, and reinstated in his primacy, when the increasing insolence of his demeanour drew from the king some hasty expressions of indignation, which his servants interpreted into a sentence of proscription; and trusting that the deed would be grateful to their master, murdered the prelate while in the act of celebrating vespers at the altar. For this shocking action Henry expressed the regret which he sincerely felt, and the pope indulgently granted his pardon, on the assurance of his dutiful obedience to the holy church.

5. The most important event of the reign of Henry II. was the conquest of Ireland. The Irish, an early civilized people, and among the first of the nations of the West who embraced the Christian religion, were, by frequent invasions of the Danes, and their own domestic commotions, replunged into barbarism for many ages. In the 12th century the kingdom consisted of five separate sovereignties, Ulster, Leinster, Munster, Meath, and Connaught; but these were subdivided among an infinite number of petty chiefs, owning a very weak allegiance to their respective sovereigns. Dermot Macmorrogh, expelled from his kingdom of Leinster for a rape on the daughter of the King of Meath, sought protection from Henry, and engaged to become his feudatory if he should recover his kingdom by the aid of the English. Henry empowered his subjects to invade Ireland; and while Strongbow, Earl of Pembroke, and his followers were laying waste the country, landed in the island himself in 1172, and received the submission of a great number of the independent chiefs. Roderick O'Connor, Prince of Connaught, whom the Irish elected nominal sovereign of all the provinces, resisted for three years the arms of Henry, but finally acknowledged his dominion by a solemn embassy to the king at Windsor. The terms of the submission were, an annual tribute of every tenth hide of land, to be applied for the support of government, and an obligation of allegiance to the crown of England; on which condition the Irish should retain their possessions, and Roderick his kingdom, except the territory of

the Pale, or that part which the English barons had subdued before the arrival of Henry.

6. Henry divided Ireland into counties, appointed sheriffs in each, and introduced the laws of England into the territory of the Pale; the rest of the kingdom being regulated by their ancient laws till the reign of Edward I., when, at the request of the nation, the English laws were extended to the whole kingdom; and in the first Irish parliament, which was held in the same reign, Sir John Wogan presided as deputy of the sovereign. From that time for some centuries, there was little intercourse between the kingdoms, nor was the island considered as fully subdued till the reign of Elizabeth and of her successor James I.

7. The latter part of the reign of Henry II. was clouded by domestic misfortune. His children, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, and John, instigated by their unnatural mother, rose in rebellion, and with the aid of Louis VII. king of France, prepared to dethrone their father. While opposing them with spirit on the continent, his kingdom was invaded by the Scots under William (the Lion). He hastened back to England, defeated the Scots, and made their king his prisoner. Two of his sons, Henry and Geoffrey, expiated their offences by an early death; but Richard, once reconciled, was again seduced from his allegiance, and in league with the king of France, plundered his father's continental dominions. The spirit of Henry was unequal to his domestic misfortunes, and he died of a broken heart in the 58th year of his age, 1189, an ornament to the English throne, and a prince surpassing all his contemporaries in the valuable qualities of a sovereign. To him England owed her first permanent improvement in arts, in laws, in government, and in civil liberty.

8. Richard I. (Cœur de Lion),* on the death of his father expressed great remorse for his former conduct, he treated with marked disfavour those who had encouraged him in his unnatural rebellion, and retained in their employments those ministers who had been the faithful advisers of his father; the love of military glory was his ruling passion, and to procure it, he immediately on his accession, embarked for the Holy Land, on a crusade

* The Lion Hearted

against the infidels, after plundering his subjects of an immense sum of money to defray the charges of the enterprise. Forming a league with Philip Augustus of France, the two monarchs joined their forces, and acting for some time in concert, were successful in the taking of Acra or Ptolemais ; but Philip, jealous of his rival's glory, soon returned to France, while Richard had the honour of defeating the heroic Saladin in the battle of Ascalon, with prodigious slaughter of his enemies. He prepared now for the siege of Jerusalem, but finding his army wasted with famine and fatigue, he was compelled to end the war by a truce with Saladin, in which he obtained a free passage through the Holy Land for every Christian pilgrim. [A.D. 1192.] Wrecked in his voyage homeward, and travelling in disguise through Germany, Richard was seized, and detained in prison by command of the emperor Henry VI. The king of France ungenerously opposed his release, as did his unnatural brother John, from selfish ambition ; but he was at length ransomed by his subjects for the sum of 150,000 marks, and after an absence of nine years, returned to his dominions. His traitorous brother was pardoned after some submission, and Richard employed the short residue of his reign in a spirited revenge against his rival, Philip. A truce, however, was concluded by the mediation of Rome ; and Richard was soon after killed while storming the castle of one of his rebellious vassals in the Limosin. He died in the 10th year of his reign, and 42nd of his age, 1199.

9. John (Lackland) succeeded to the throne on the death of his brother, but found a competitor in his nephew Arthur, the son of Geoffrey, supported by Philip of France. War was, of course, renewed with that country : but Arthur, with fatal confidence, throwing himself into the hands of his uncle, was removed by poison or the sword ; a deed which, joined to the known tyranny of his character, rendered John the detestation of his subjects. He was stripped by Philip of his continental dominions, and he made the pope his enemy by an avaricious attack on the treasures of the church. After an ineffectual menace of vengeance, Innocent III. pronounced a sentence of interdict against the kingdom, which put a stop to all the ordinances of religion, to baptism, and the burial of the dead. He next excommunicated John, and absolved his subjects from their allegiance ; and he finally

deposed him, and made a gift of the kingdom to Philip. John, intimidated into submission, declared himself the pope's vassal, swore allegiance on his knees to the papal legate, and agreed to hold his kingdom tributary to the holy see. On these conditions, which ensured the universal hatred and contempt of his people, he made his peace with the church. It was natural that his subjects, thus trampled upon and sold, should vindicate their rights. The barons of the kingdom assembled, and binding themselves by oath to a union of measures, they resolutely demanded from the king a ratification of a charter of privileges granted by Henry I. John appealed to the pope, who, in support of his vassal, prohibited the confederacy of the barons as rebellious. These were only the more resolute in their purpose, and the sword was their last resource. At length John was compelled to yield to their demands, and signed, at Runnymede [situate between Windsor and Staines] 19th June, 1215, [the articles of] that solemn charter, which is the foundation and bulwark of English liberty, *Magna Charta*.

10. By this great charter, 1. The freedom of election to benefices was secured to the clergy; 2. The fines to the overlord on the succession of vassals were regulated; 3. No aids or subsidies were allowed to be levied from the subject, unless in a few special cases, without the consent of the great council; 4. The crown shall not seize the lands [or rent] of a baron [or other British subject] for a debt, while he has [chattels, *i. e.*] personal property sufficient to discharge it; 5. All the privileges granted by the king to his vassals shall be communicated by them to their inferior vassals; 6. One weight and one measure shall be used throughout the kingdom; 7. All men shall pass from and return to the realm at their pleasure; 8. All cities and boroughs shall preserve their ancient liberties; 9. The estate of every freeman shall be regulated by his will, and, if he die intestate, by the law; 10. The king's court shall be stationary and open to all; 11. Every freeman shall be fined only in proportion to his offence, and no fine shall be imposed to his utter ruin; 12. No peasant [in fact no person] shall, by a fine be deprived of his instruments of husbandry; 13. No person shall be tried on suspicion alone, but on the evidence of lawful witnesses; 14. No person shall be tried or punished but by the judgment of his peers and the law of the land.

11. John granted at the same time the *Charta de Foresta*, which abolished the royal privilege of killing game over all the kingdom, and restored to the lawful proprietors their woods and forests, which they were now allowed to enclose and use at their pleasure. As compulsion alone had produced these concessions, John was determined to disregard them, and a foreign force was brought into the kingdom to reduce the barons into submission. These applied for aid to France, and Philip sent his son Louis to England with an army; and such was the people's hatred of their sovereign, that they swore allegiance to this foreigner. At this critical period John died at Newark, 1216, and an instant change ensued. His son, Henry III., a boy of nine years of age, was crowned at Bristol, and his uncle, the Earl of Pembroke, appointed protector of the realm: the disaffected barons returned to their allegiance, the people hailed their sovereign, and Louis with his army, after an ineffectual struggle, made peace with the protector, and evacuated the kingdom.

XVI.—*State of Germany and Italy in the Thirteenth Century.*

1. Frederick II., son of Henry VI. was elected emperor on the resignation of Otho IV., 1212. At this period Naples, Sicily, and Lombardy, were all appendages of the empire; and the contentions between the imperial and papal powers divided the states of Italy into factions, known by the name of Guelphs and Ghibellines; the former maintaining the supremacy of the pope, the latter that of the emperor. The opposition of Frederick to four successive popes was avenged by excommunication and deposition; yet he kept possession of his throne, and vindicated his authority with great spirit. Frequent attempts were made against his life, by assassination and poison, which he openly attributed to papal resentment. On his death, 1250, the splendour of the empire was for many years obscured. It was a prey to incessant factions and civil war, the fruit of contested claims of sovereignty; yet the popes gained nothing by its disorders; for the troubles of Italy were equally hostile to their ambition. We have seen the turbulent state of England; France was equally weak and anarchical; Spain, ravaged by the contests of the Moors and Christians. Yet, distracted as

appears the situation of Europe, one great project gave à species of union to this discordant mass, of which we now proceed to give account.

XVII.—*The Crusades, or Holy Wars.*

1. The Turks, or Turcomans, a race of Tartars from the regions of Mount Taurus and Imaus, invaded the dominions of Moscovy in the eleventh century, and came down upon the banks of the Caspian. The caliphs employed Turkish mercenaries; and they acquired the reputation of able soldiers in the wars that took place on occasion of the contested caliphate. The caliphs of Bagdat, the Abassidæ, were deprived, by their rival caliphs of the race of Oniar, of Syria, Egypt, and Africa; and the Turks stripped of their dominions both the Abassidæ and Omniades. Bagdat was taken by the Turks, and the empire of the caliphs overthrown in 1055; and these princes, from temporal monarchs, became now the supreme pontiffs of the Mahometan faith, as the popes of the Christian. At the time of the first crusade, in the end of the eleventh century, Arabia was governed by a Turkish sultan, as were Persia and the greater portion of Lesser Asia. The eastern empire was thus abridged of its Asiatic territory, and had lost a great part of its dominions in Europe. It retained, however, Greece, Macedonia, Thrace, and Illyria; and Constantinople itself was populous, opulent, and luxurious. Palestine was in the possession of the Turks; and its capital, Jerusalem, fallen from its ancient consequence and splendour, was yet held in respect by its conquerors as a holy city, and constantly attracted the resort of Mahometans to the mosque of Omar, as of Christian pilgrims to the sepulchre of our Saviour.

2. Peter the Hermit, a native of Amiens, on his return from this pilgrimage, complained in loud terms of the grievances which the Christians suffered from the Turks; and Urban II. pitched on this enthusiast as a fit person to commence the execution of a grand design which the popes had long entertained, of arming all Christendom, and exterminating the infidels from the Holy Land. The project was opened in two general councils held at Placentia and Clermont. The French possessed more ardour than the Italians; and an immense multitude of ambitious and disorderly nobles, with all their dependants, eager for enterprise and plunder, and assured of eternal salvation,

immediately took the cross. Peter the Hermit led 80,000 under his banners, and they began their march towards the east in 1095. Their progress was marked by rapine and hostility in every Christian country through which they passed; and the army of the Hermit, on its arrival at Constantinople, was wasted down to 20,000. The emperor Alexius Comnenus, to whom the crusaders behaved with the most provoking insolence and folly, conducted himself with admirable moderation and good sense. He hastened to get rid of this disorderly multitude, by furnishing them with every aid which they required, and cheerfully lent his ships to transport them across the Bosphorus. The sultan Solyman met them on the plain of Nicea, and cut to pieces the army of the Hermit. A new host, in the mean time, arrived at Constantinople, led by more illustrious commanders; by Godfrey of Bouillon, Duke of Brabant, Raymond Count of Thoulouse, Robert of Normandy, son of William King of England, Bohemond, son of Robert Guiscard, the conqueror of Sicily, and other princes of high reputation. To these, who amounted to some hundred thousands, Alexius manifested the same prudent conduct, to accelerate their departure. The Turks, overpowered by numbers, were twice defeated, and the crusaders, pursuing their successes, penetrated at length to Jerusalem, which, after a siege of six weeks, they took by storm, and with savage fury massacred the whole of its Mahometan and Jewish inhabitants, A.D. 1099. Godfrey was hailed king of Jerusalem, but was obliged soon after to cede his kingdom to the Pope's legate. The crusaders divided Syria and Palestine, and formed four separate states, which weakened their power. The Turks began to recover strength; and the Christian states of Asia soon found it necessary to solicit aid from Europe.

3. The second crusade set out from the West in 1146, to the amount of 200,000, French, Germans, and Italians, led by Hugh, brother to Philip I. of France. These met with the same fate which attended the army of Peter the Hermit. The garrison of Jerusalem was at this time so weak, that it became necessary to embody and arm the monks for its defence, and hence arose the military orders of the Knights Templars and Hospitallers, and soon after the Teutonic, from the German pilgrims. Meantime pope Eugenius III. employed St. Bernard to preach up a new crusade in France, which was headed by its sovereign,

Louis VII. (the Young), who, in conjunction with Conrad III., Emperor of Germany, mustered jointly 300,000 men. The Germans were cut to pieces by the sultan of Iconium; the French were totally defeated near Laodicæa; and the two monarchs, after much disaster, returned with shame to their dominions.

4. The illustrious Saladin, nephew of the sultan of Egypt, formed the design of recovering Palestine from the Christians; and besieging Jerusalem, he took the city, and made prisoner its sovereign, Guy of Lusignan. Pope Clement III., alarmed at the successes of the infidels, began to stir up a new crusade from France, England, and Germany; and the armies of each country were headed by their respective sovereigns, Philip Augustus, Richard I., and Frederick Barbarossa. In this third crusade, the Emperor Frederick died in Asia, and his army, by repeated defeats, smouldered to nothing. The English and French were more successful; they besieged and took Ptolemæis; but Richard and Philip quarrelled from jealousy of each other's glory, and the French monarch returned in disgust to his country. Richard nobly sustained the contest with Saladin, whom he defeated near Ascalon; but his army was reduced by famine and fatigue; and concluding a treaty, at least not dishonourable, with his enemy, he was at length forced to escape from Palestine with a single ship. (See *supra*, sect. xv. § 8.) Saladin, revered even by the Christians, died 1195.

5. A fourth crusade was fitted out in 1202, under Baldwin, Count of Flanders, of which the object was not the extirpation of the infidels, but the destruction of the empire of the east. Constantinople, embroiled by civil war and revolution, from disputed claims to the sovereignty, was besieged and taken by the crusaders; and Baldwin, their chief, was elected emperor, to be within a few months dethroned and murdered. The Imperial dominions were shared among the principal leaders; and the Venetians, who had lent their ships for the expedition, got the isle of Candia (anciently Crete) for their reward. Alexius, of the Imperial family of the Comneni, founded a new sovereignty in Asia, which he termed the empire of Trebizond. The object of a fifth crusade was to lay waste Egypt, in revenge for an attack on Palestine by its sultan Saphadin. Partial success and ultimate ruin was the

issue of this expedition, as of all the preceding.*]A.D. 1217—1221.]

6. At this period, 1207, a great revolution took place in Asia. Gengis Khan, with his Tartars, broke down from the north upon Persia and Syria, and massacred indiscriminately Turks, Jews, and Christians, who opposed them. The Christian knights templars, hospitallers, and Teutonic, made a desperate but ineffectual resistance; and Palestine must have been abandoned to these invaders, had not its fate been for a while retarded by the last crusade under Louis IX. of France [surnamed the Saint]. This prince, summoned, as he believed, by Heaven, after four years' preparation, set out for the Holy Land, with his queen, his three brothers, and all the knights of France. His army began their enterprise by an attack on Egypt, where, after considerable successes, they were at length utterly defeated, and the French monarch, with two of his brothers, fell into the hands of the enemy. He purchased his liberty at an immense ransom, and, returning to France, reigned prosperously and wisely for 13 years. But the same frenzy again assailing him, he embarked on a crusade against the Moors in Africa, where his army was destroyed by a pestilence, and he himself became its victim [at the siege of Tunis], 1270. It is computed that, in the whole of the crusades to Palestine, 2,000,000 of Europeans were buried in the east. [Gengis Khan died in 1226, leaving his conquests to be continued by his successors; one of whom in 1236, conquered Russia, invaded Poland, and destroyed the cities of Lublin and Cracow.]

7. *Effects of the Crusades.*—One consequence of the holy wars is supposed to have been the improvement of European manners; but the times immediately succeeding the crusades exhibit no such actual improvement. Two centuries of barbarism and darkness elapsed between the termination of those enterprises, and the fall of the Greek empire in 1453, the era of the revival of letters, and the commencement of civilization. A certain consequence of the crusades was the change of territorial property in all the feudal kingdoms, the sale of the estates of the nobles,

* In 1202 upwards of 80,000 youths of different countries left their parents in order to betake themselves to the Holy Land. Cold, famine, disease, and captivity became the fate of these juvenile enthusiasts, none of whom ever returned home. See Michaud's History of the Crusades. —ED.

and their division among a number of smaller proprietors. Hence the feudal aristocracy was weakened, and the lower classes began to acquire weight, and a spirit of independence. The towns, hitherto bound by a sort of vassalage to the nobles, began to purchase their immunity, acquired the right of electing their own magistrates, and were governed by their own municipal laws. The church in some respects gained, and in others lost by these enterprises. The popes gained a more extended jurisdiction; but the fatal issue of those expeditions opened the eyes of the world to the selfish and interested motives which had prompted them, and weakened the sway of superstition. Many of the religious orders acquired an increase of wealth; but this was balanced by the taxes imposed on the clergy. The coin was altered and debased in most of the kingdoms of Europe from the scarcity of specie. The Jews were supposed to have hoarded and concealed it, and they became hence the victims of general persecution. The most substantial gainers by the crusades were the Italian states of Genoa, Pisa, and Venice, from the increased trade to the Levant, for the supply of those immense armies. Venice, as we have seen, took an active concern, and obtained her share of the conquered territory.

The age of the crusades brought chivalry to its perfection, and gave rise to romantic fiction.

XVIII.—*Of Chivalry and Romance.*

1. Chivalry arose naturally from the condition of society in those ages in which it prevailed. Among the Germanic nations, the profession of arms was esteemed the sole employment that deserved the name of manly or honourable. The initiation of the youth to this profession was attended with peculiar solemnity, and appropriate ceremonies. The chief of the tribe bestowed the sword and armour on his vassal, as a symbol of their being devoted to his service. In the progress of the feudal system, these vassals, in imitation of their chief, assumed the power of conferring arms on their sub-vassals, with a similar form of mysterious and pompous ceremonial. The candidate for knighthood underwent his preparatory fasts and vigils, and received on his knees the *accollade* and benediction of his chief. Armed and caparisoned, he sallied forth in quest of adventure, which, whether just or

not in its purpose, was ever esteemed honourable in proportion as it was perilous.

2. The high esteem of the female sex is characteristic of the Gothic manners. In those ages of barbarism, the castles of the greater barons were in miniature the courts of sovereigns. The society of the ladies, who found only in such fortresses a security from outrage, polished the manners; and to protect the chastity and honour of the fair, was the best employ and highest merit of an accomplished knight. Romantic exploit had, therefore, always a tincture of gallantry :

" It hath been through all ages ever seen,
That with the praise of arms and chivalry
The prize of beauty still hath joined been,
And that for reason's special privy ;
For either doth on other much rely ;
For he, me seems, most fit the fair to serve,
That can her best defend from villany ;
And she most fit his service doth deserve
That fairest is, and from her faith will never swerve."
(Spenser's Fairy Queen.)

3. To the passion for adventure and romantic love, were added very high ideas of morality and religion; but, as the latter were ever subordinate to the former, we may presume more in favour of their refinement than of their purity. It was the pride of a knight to redress wrongs and injuries; but in that honourable employment he made small account of those he committed; and it was easy to expiate the greatest offences by a penance or a pilgrimage, which furnished only a new opportunity for adventurous exploit.

4. Chivalry, whether it began with the Moors or Normans, attained its perfection at the period of the crusades, which presented a noble object of adventure, and a boundless field for military glory. Few, it is true, returned from those desperate enterprises, but those few had a high reward in the admiration of their countrymen. The bards and romancers sung their praises, and recorded their exploits, with a thousand circumstances of fabulous embellishment.

5. The earliest of the old romances (so termed from the Romance language, a mixture of the Frank and Latin, in which they were written) appeared about the middle of the 12th century, the period of the second crusade. But those more ancient compositions did not record contemporary events, whose known truth would have precluded

all liberty of fiction or exaggeration. Geoffrey of Monmouth, and the author who assumed the name of Archbishop Turpin, had free scope to their fancy, by celebrating the deeds of Arthur and the knights of the Round Table, and the exploits of Charlemagne and his twelve peers; and from the fruitful stock of those first romances sprung a numerous offspring, equally wild and extravagant.

6. Philosophers have analyzed the pleasure arising from works of fiction, and have endeavoured, by various hypotheses, to account for the interest we take in the description of an event or scene which we know to be utterly impossible. We may account thus simply for the phenomenon: Every narration is in some degree attended with a dramatic deception. We enter for the time into the situation of the persons concerned. Adopting their passions and their feelings, we lose for a moment all sense of the absurdity of their cause, whilst we see the agents themselves hold it for reasonable and adequate. The most incredulous sceptic may sympathise strongly with the feelings of Hamlet at the sight of his father's spectre.

7. Thus powerfully affected as we are by sympathy, even against the conviction of our reason, how much greater must have been the effect of such works of the imagination in those days when popular superstition gave full credit to the reality, or at least the possibility, of all that they described. And hence we must censure, as both unnecessary and improbable, that theory of Dr. Hurd, which accounts for all the wildness of the old romances, on the supposition that their fictions were entirely allegorical; which explains the giants and savages into the oppressive feudal lords and their barbarous dependants; as M. Mallett construes the serpents and dragons which guarded the enchanted castles, into their winding walls, fossés, and battlements. It were sufficient to say, that many of these old romances are inexplicable by allegory. They were received by the popular belief as truths, and even their contrivers believed in the possibility of the scenes and actions they described. In latter ages, and in the wane of superstition, yet while it still retained a powerful influence, the poets adopted allegory as a vehicle of moral instruction: and to this period belong those poetical romances which bear an allegorical explanation;

as the *Fairy Queen* of Spenser, the *Orlando* of Ariosto, and the *Gierusalemme Liberato* of Tasso.

8. In more modern times the taste for romantic composition declined with the popular credulity; and the fastidiousness of philosophy affected to treat all supernatural fiction with contempt. But it was at length perceived that this refinement had cut off a source of very high mental enjoyment. The public taste now took a new turn; and this moral revolution is at present tending to its extreme. We are gone back to the nursery to listen to tales of hobgoblins; a change which we may safely prognosticate can be of no long duration.

XIX.—*State of Europe in the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Centuries.*

1. Constantinople, taken in 1202 by the crusaders, was possessed only for a short time by its conquerors. It was governed by French [and Venetian] Emperors for the space of 60 years, and was taken by the Greeks in 1261, under Michael Palæologus, who, by imprisoning and putting out the eyes of his pupil Theodore Lascaris, secured to himself the sovereignty.

2. Germany was governed in the beginning of the thirteenth century by Frederick II., who paid homage to the pope for the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, possessed by his son Conrad, and afterwards by his brother Manfred, who usurped the crown in violation of the right of his nephew Conradin. Pope Clement IV., jealous of the dominion of the imperial family, gave the investiture of Naples and Sicily to Charles of Anjou, brother of Lewis IX. of France, who defeated and put to death his competitors. The Sicilians revenged this act of usurpation and cruelty by the murder, in one night, of every Frenchman in the island. This shocking massacre, termed the *Sicilian Vespers*, happened on Easter Sunday, 1282. It was followed by every evil that comes in the train of civil war and revolution.

3. The beginning of the thirteenth century had been signalized by a new species of crusade. The Albigenses, inhabitants of Albi in the Pays de Vaud, were bold enough to dispute many of the tenets of the catholic church, as judging them contrary to the doctrines of Scripture. Innocent III. established a holy commission at Toulouse, with power to try and punish these heretics.

[Raymond] the [sixth] count of Toulouse opposed this persecution, and was, for the punishment of his offence, compelled by the pope to assist in a crusade against his own vassals. Simon de Montford was the leader of this [miscalled] pious enterprise, which was marked by the most atrocious cruelties. The benefits of the holy commission were judged by the popes to be so great, that it became from that time a permanent establishment [at Toulouse] known by the name of *the Inquisition*.

4. The rise of the house of Austria may be dated from 1274, when Rodolph of Hapsburg, a Swiss baron, was elected emperor of Germany. He owed his elevation to the jealousies of the electoral princes, who could not agree in the choice of any one of themselves. Ottocar king of Bohemia, to whom Rodolph had been steward of the household, could ill brook the supremacy of his former dependent; and refusing him the customary homage for his Germanic possessions, Rodolph stripped him of Austria, which has ever since remained in the family of its conqueror. [Rodolph died A.D. 1291.]

5. The Italian states of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, were at this time flourishing and opulent, while most of the kingdoms of Europe (if we except England under Edward I.) were exhausted, feeble, and disorderly. The dawning of civil liberty began to appear in France under Philip IV. (*le Bel*), who summoned the third estate to the national assemblies, which had hitherto consisted of the nobility and clergy, 1308. It was the same prince who established perpetual courts of judicature in France, under the name of parliaments. Over these the parliament of Paris possessed a jurisdiction by appeal; but it was not till latter times that it assumed any authority in matters of state.

6. The parliament of England had before this era begun to assume its present constitution. The commons, or the representatives of counties and boroughs, were first called to parliament by Henry III.; before that time this assembly consisted only of the greater barons and clergy. But of the rise and progress of the constitution of England we shall afterwards treat more particularly in a separate section.

7. The spirit of the popedom, zealous in the maintenance and extension of its prerogatives, continued much the same in the 13th and 14th, as we have seen it in the

three preceding centuries. Philip the Fair had subjected his clergy to bear their share of the public taxes, and prohibited all contributions to be levied by the pope in his dominions. This double offence was highly resented by Boniface VIII., who expressed his indignation by a sentence of excommunication and interdict, and a solemn transference of the kingdom of France to the emperor Albert. Philip, in revenge, sent his general Nogaret to Rome, who threw the pope into prison. The French, however, were overpowered by the papal troops, and the death of Boniface put an end to the quarrel.

8. It is less easy to justify the conduct of Philip the Fair to the knights templars than his behaviour to pope Boniface. The whole of this order had incurred his resentment, from suspicion of harbouring treasonable designs. He had influence with Clement V. to procure a papal bull, warranting their extirpation from all the Christian kingdoms; and this infamous proscription was carried into effect all over Europe. These unfortunate men were solemnly tried, not for their real offence, but for pretended impieties and idolatrous practices, [they were all stripped of their property and possessions] and [many of them were] committed to the flames, 1309—1312. [In England the bulk of property divested from them was] bestowed on the knights hospitalers of St. John of Jerusalem in England.

XX.—*Revolution of Switzerland.*

1. The beginning of the 14th century was distinguished by the revolution of Switzerland, and the rise of the Helvetic republic. The emperor Rodolph of Hapsburg was hereditary sovereign of several of the Swiss cantons, and governed his states with much equity and moderation; but his successor Albert, a tyrannical prince, formed the design of annexing the whole of the provinces to his dominion, and erecting them into a principality for one of his sons. The cantons of Schweitz, Ury, and Unterwald, which had always resisted the authority of Austria, combined to assert their freedom; and a small army of 400 or 500 men defeated an immense host of the Austrians in the pass of Morgate, 1315. The rest of the cantons by degrees joined the association, and with invincible perseverance, after 60 pitched battles with their enemies, they won and secured their dear-bought liberty.

2. *Constitution of Switzerland.*—The 13 cantons were united by a solemn treaty, which stipulated the proportional succours to be furnished by each in the case of foreign hostility, and the measures to be followed for securing the union of the states, and accommodating domestic differences. With respect to its internal government and economy, each canton was independent. Of some the constitution was monarchical, and of others republican. All matters touching the general league were transacted either by letters sent to Zurich, and thence officially circulated to all the cantons, or by conferences. The general diet, where two deputies attended from each canton, was held once a-year, the first deputy of Zurich presiding. The catholic and protestant cantons likewise held their separate diets on occasional emergencies.

3. The Swiss, when at peace, employed their troops for hire in foreign service, judging it a wise policy to keep alive the military spirit of the nation, and the armies thus employed have been equally distinguished for their courage and fidelity. The industry and economy of the Swiss are proverbial; and their country supports a most abundant population from the zealous promotion of agriculture and manufactures.

XXI.—*State of Europe (continued) in the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and part of the Fifteenth Centuries.*

1. The rival claims of superiority between the popes and emperors still continued. Henry VII., the successor of Albert, vindicated his right by the sword, triumphantly fought his way to Rome, where he was solemnly crowned, and imposed a tribute on all the states of Italy. His sudden death was suspected to be the consequence of papal resentment. It was in his time that the seat of the popedom was transferred by Clement V. from Rome to Avignon, 1309, where it remained till 1377. The factions of Italy were the cause of this removal. Lewis of Bavaria, the successor of Henry, deprived and excommunicated by John XXII., revenged himself by deposing the pope. This pontiff who had originally been a cobbler, surpassed most of his predecessors in pride and tyranny. He kept his seat on the papal chair, and left at his death an immense treasure, accumulated by the sale of benefices: while his rival, the emperor, died in indigence.

2. His successor in the empire, Charles IV., published, in 1355, the imperial constitution, termed *The Golden Bull*,* the fundamental law of the Germanic body, which reduced the number of electors to seven, and settled on them all the hereditary offices of state. These exemplified their new rights by deposing his son Wenceslaus [who had succeeded to the empire in 1378] for incapacity, 1400. Three separate factions of the French and Italian cardinals having elected three separate popes, the emperor Sigismund judged this division of the church to be a fit opportunity for his interference, to reconcile all differences, and establish his own supremacy. He summoned a general council at Constance, 1414, and ended the dispute by degrading all the three pontiffs, and naming a fourth, Martin Colonna. This division of the papacy is termed *The great schism of the West*.

3. The spiritual business of the council of Constance was no less important than its temporal. John Huss, a disciple of Wickliff, was tried for heresy, in denying the hierarchy, and satirising the immoralities of the popes and bishops. He did not deny the charge; and refusing to confess his errors, was burnt alive. A similar fate was the portion of his friend and disciple, Jerome of Prague, who displayed at his execution the eloquence of an apostle, and the constancy of a martyr, 1416. Sigismund felt the consequence of these horrible proceedings; for the Bohemians opposed his succession to their vacant crown, and it cost him a war of 16 years to attain it.

4. Whatever was the imperial power at this time, it derived but small consequence from its actual revenues. The wealth of the Germanic states was exclusively possessed by their separate sovereigns, and the emperor had little more than what he drew from Bohemia and Hungary. The sovereignty of Italy was an empty title. The interest of the emperor in that country furnished only a source of faction to its princes, and embroiled the states in perpetual quarrels. A series of conspiracies and civil tumults form, for above 200 years, the annals of the principal cities. Naples and Sicily were ruined by the weak and disorderly government of the two Joannas. A passion which the younger of these conceived for a soldier, of the name of Sforza, raised him to the sovereignty of Milan; and her adoption, first of Alphonso of Arragon,

* So called from the gold seal suspended to it.—Ed.

and afterwards of Lewis of Anjou, laid the foundation of those contests between Spain and France for the sovereignties of the two Sicilies, which afterwards agitated all Europe.

XXII.—*History of England in the Thirteenth Century.*

1. Henry III., who, at nine years of age, succeeded to the crown of England on the death of his father John, was a prince of amiable disposition, but of weak understanding. His preference for foreign favourites disgusted his nobles; and the want of economy in his government, and oppressive exactions, deprived him of the affection of his people. Montfort, Earl of Leicester, son of the leader of the crusade against the Albigenes, and brother-in-law of the king, conceived a plan for usurping the government; and, forming a league with the barons, on the pretext of reforming abuses, compelled Henry to delegate all the regal power into the hands of twenty-four of their number. These divided among themselves the offices of government, and new-modelled the parliament, by summoning a certain number of knights chosen from each county, a measure fatal to their own power; for these representatives of the people, indignant at Leicester's usurpation, determined to restore the royal authority; and they called on Prince Edward, a youth of intrepid spirit, to avenge his father's wrongs, and save the kingdom.

2. Leicester raised a formidable force, and in a successful engagement, at Lewes, in Sussex, 1264, defeated the royal army, and made both the king and prince his prisoners. He now compelled the impotent Henry to ratify his authority by a solemn treaty; and assuming the character of regent, he called a parliament, summoning two knights from each of the counties, and deputies from the principal boroughs: the first regular plan of the English House of Commons. This assembly, exercising its just rights, and asserting with firmness the re-establishment of the ancient government of the kingdom, Leicester judged it prudent to release the prince from his confinement; and Edward was no sooner at liberty, than he took the field against the usurper, who, in the battle of Evesham, 4th August, 1265, was defeated and slain. Henry was now restored to his throne by the arms of his gallant son, who, after establishing domestic tranquillity, embarked in the last crusade with Lewis IX., and signa-

lized his prowess by many valorous exploits in Palestine. He had the honour of concluding an advantageous truce for ten years with the sultan of Babylon, and was on his return to England when he received intelligence of his accession to the crown by the death of his father, 1272.

3. Edward I., in the beginning of his reign, projected the conquest of Wales. The Welsh, the descendants of the ancient Britons who had escaped the Roman and Saxon conquests, preserved their liberty, their laws, their manners, and their language. Their prince, Lewellyn, refusing his customary homage, Edward invaded Wales, and surrounded the army of the prince, who retreated to the mountains, cut off all his supplies, and compelled him to an unqualified submission. The terms demanded were, the surrender of a part of the country, a large sum of money, and an obligation of perpetual fealty to the crown of England. The Welsh [provoked by the insolence of English borderers] infringed this treaty; and Edward marched his army into the heart of the country, where the troops of Lewellyn made a most desperate but ineffectual resistance. In a decisive engagement, in 1283, the prince was slain. His brother David, betrayed into the hand of the conqueror, was inhumanly executed on a gibbet; and Wales, completely subdued, was annexed to the crown of England. [During Edward's stay in Wales, his queen Eleanor gave birth to a son in the Castle of Carnarvon (A.D. 1284); and from this circumstance, he was declared Prince of Wales—a title which the eldest son of the reigning king of England has ever since borne.] With a policy equally absurd and cruel, Edward ordered the Welsh bards to be put to death wherever found; thereby insuring the perpetuation of their heroic songs, and increasing the abhorrence of the vanquished people for their barbarous conqueror.

4. The conquest of Wales inflamed the ambition of Edward, and inspired him with the design of extending his dominion to the extremity of the island. The designs of this enterprising monarch on the kingdom of Scotland invite our attention to that quarter; but previously require a short retrospect to its earlier history.

XXIII.—*History of Scotland from the Eleventh to the Fourteenth Century.*

1. The history of Scotland, before the reign of Mal-

colm III.; surnamed Canmore, is obscure, from the deficiency of historical records. This prince, by the defeat of Macbeth, the murderer of his father Duncan, succeeded to the throne in 1057; and espousing the cause of Edgar Atheling, heir of the Saxon Kings of England, whose sister he married, he thus provoked a war with William the Conqueror, which was equally prejudicial to both kingdoms. In an expedition of Malcolm into England, it is alleged that, after concluding a truce, he was compelled by William to do homage for his kingdom. The truth is, that this homage was done for the territories in Cumberland and Northumberland won by the Scots, and held in vassalage of the English crown; though this homage was afterwards absurdly made the pretext of a claim of feudal sovereignty over all Scotland. In a reign of 27 years, Malcolm supported a spirited contest with England, both under William I. and his son Rufus; and to the virtues of his queen Margaret his kingdom, in its domestic policy, owed a degree of civilization remarkable in those ages of barbarism. [Both Malcolm and his eldest son were killed at the siege of Alnwick, (A.D. 1093.) After the death of Malcolm, his throne was usurped first by his brother Donald Bane; and afterwards by Duncan his natural son, but England at length interposed and placed Edgar, lawful son of Malcolm, upon the throne, who, after a reign of nine years, distinguished by no remarkable event, died (A.D. 1106).]

2. Alexander I. [brother and successor to Edgar], defended with equal spirit and good policy, the independence of his kingdom; and his son David I., celebrated even by the democratic Buchanan as an honour to his country and to monarchy, won from Stephen, and annexed to his crown, the whole earldom of Northumberland. In those reigns we hear of no claim of the feudal subjection of Scotland to the crown of England; though the accidental fortune of war afterwards furnished a ground for it. William I. (the Lion), taken prisoner at Alnwick by Henry II., was compelled, as the price of his release, to do homage for his whole kingdom; an obligation which his successor Richard voluntarily discharged, as deeming it to have been unjustly extorted.

3. On the death of Alexander III. without male issue, in 1285, Bruce and Baliol, descendants of David I. by the female line, were competitors for the crown, and the

pretensions of each were supported by a formidable party in the kingdom. Edward I., of England, chosen umpire of the contest, arrogated to himself, in that character, the feudal sovereignty of the kingdom, compelling all the barons to swear allegiance to him, and taking actual possession of the country by his troops. He then adjudged the crown to Baliol, on the express condition of his swearing fealty to him as lord paramount. Baliol, however, soon after renouncing his allegiance, the indignant Edward invaded Scotland with an immense force, and compelled the weak prince to abdicate the throne, and resign the kingdom into his hands. [A.D. 1296.]

4. William Wallace, one of the greatest heroes that history records, restored the fallen honours of his country. Joined by a few patriots, his first successes in attacking the English garrisons brought numbers to his patriotic standard. Their successes were signal and conspicuous; victory followed upon victory; and while Edward was engaged on the continent, his troops were utterly defeated in a desperate engagement at Stirling, and forced to evacuate the kingdom. Wallace, the deliverer of his country, now assumed the title of governor of Scotland under Baliol, who was Edward's prisoner; a distinction which was followed by the envy and disaffection of many of the nobles, and the consequent diminution of his army. The Scots were defeated at Falkirk. Edward returned with a vast accession of force; and, after a fruitless resistance, the Scottish barons finally obtained peace by a capitulation, from which the brave Wallace was excepted by name. A fugitive for some time, he was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who put him to death with every circumstance of cruelty that barbarous revenge could dictate 1304.

5. Scotland found a second champion and deliverer in Robert Bruce, the grandson of the competitor with Baliol; who, deeply resenting the humiliation of his country, once more set up the standard of war, and gave defiance to the English monarch, to whom his father and grandfather had meanly sworn allegiance. Under this intrepid leader the spirit of the nation was roused at once: the English were attacked in every quarter, and once more entirely driven out of the kingdom. Robert Bruce was crowned king at Scone, 1306; and Edward, advancing with an immense army, died at Carlisle, 7th July, 1307, enjoining it with his last breath to his son Edward II. to prosecute the war with the Scots to the entire reduction of the country.

XXIV.—*History of England in the Fourteenth Century.*

1. In the reign of Edward I., we observe the constitution of England gradually advancing. The Commons had been admitted to Parliament in the latter period of his father Henry III. A statute was passed by Edward, which declared, that no tax or impost should be levied without the consent of Lords and Commons. The same monarch ratified the *Magna Charta* no less than eleven times in the course of his reign; and henceforward this fundamental law began to be regarded as sacred and unalterable.

2. Edward II. was in character the very opposite of his father, weak, indolent, and capricious, but of humane and benevolent affections. He disgusted his nobles by his attachment to mean and undeserving favourites, whom he raised to the highest dignities of the state, and honoured with his exclusive confidence. Piers Gaveston, a vicious and trifling minion, whom the king appointed regent when on a journey to Paris to marry Isabella, daughter of Philip the Fair, disgusted the barons to such a pitch, that they compelled the king to delegate all the authority of government to certain commissioners, and to abandon his favorite to their resentment. He was doomed to perpetual imprisonment, and, on attempt to escape, was seized and beheaded.

3. Edward, in obedience to his father's will, invaded Scotland with 100,000 men. King Robert Bruce met this immense force with 30,000 at Bannockburn, and defeated them with prodigious slaughter [A.D. 1314.] This important victory secured the independency of Scotland. Edward escaped by sea to his own dominions; and a new favourite, Spencer, supplying the place of Gaveston, his undeserved elevation and overbearing character completed the disaffection of the nobles to their sovereign. The queen, a vicious adulteress, joined the malcontents, and, passing over to France, obtained from her brother Charles IV. an army to invade England, and dethrone her husband. Her enterprise was successful. Spencer and his father were betrayed into the hands of their enemies, and perished on a scaffold. The king was taken prisoner, tried by Parliament, and solemnly de-

posed ; and, being confined to prison, was soon after put to death with unexampled circumstances of cruelty, 1327.

4. Edward III., crowned at fourteen years of age, could not submit to the regency of a mother stained with the foulest of crimes. His father's death was revenged by the perpetual imprisonment of Isabella, and the public execution of her paramour Mortimer. Bent on the conquest of Scotland, Edward marched to the North with a prodigious army, vanquished the Scots in the battle of Halidounhill, and placed Edward Baliol, his vassal and tributary on the throne. But the kingdom was as repugnant as ever to the rule of England, and a favourable opportunity was taken for the renewal of hostilities, on the departure of Edward for a foreign enterprise, which gave full scope to his ambition.

5. On the death of Charles IV. without male issue, the crown of France was claimed by Edward III. of England, in right of his mother [Isabel], the sister of Charles [and sister to the two previous kings], while, in the mean time, the throne was occupied by the male heir, Philip of Valois [grandson of Philip III.]* Edward fitted out an immense armament by sea and land ; and, obtaining a signal victory over the French fleet landed on the coast of Normandy, and, with his son, the Black Prince, ran a career of the most glorious exploits. Philip, with 100,000 men, met the English with 30,000, and was entirely defeated in the field of Cressy, August 26, 1348. Here the English are said for the first time to have used artillery in battle. Fire-arms are thus but a recent invention (1340) and have much contributed to lessen both the slaughter and the frequency of wars. Mr. Hume observes, that war is now reduced nearly to a matter of calculation. A nation knows its power ; and when overmatched, either yields to its enemies, or secures itself by alliance. But late events have given some contradiction to these opinions. Calais, taken by the English, remained in their possession for 210 years.

6. The Scots, in the mean time, invading England,

* The opinion had long prevailed that the crown of France could never descend to a female, and this maxim was supposed to be confirmed by a clause in the Italian code. It had gathered strength from frequent precedents in the first and second races ; during the third race the crown had descended from father to son, for eleven generations, and thus during a period of nine hundred years, the monarchy of France had been governed by males and no females, and none who founded his title on a female had ever mounted the throne.—Hume.

were defeated in the battle of Durham, by Philippa, the heroic Queen of Edward III., and their sovereign David II. led prisoner to London. A truce concluded between Edward and Philip was dissolved by the death of the latter, and the succession of his son, John, who took the field with 60,000 men against the Black Prince, and was defeated by him with a far inferior number, in the signal battle of Poitiers, September 19, 1356. John, king of France, was led in triumph to London, the fellow-prisoner of David, king of Scotland. But England derived from these victories nothing but honour. The French continued the war with great vigour during the captivity of their sovereign, who died in London, 1364; and they obtained a peace by the cession to the English of Poitou, St. Onge, Perigord, &c., while Edward consented to renounce his claim to the crown of France. The death of the Black Prince, [in the 46th year of his age] a most heroic and virtuous character, plunged the nation in grief, and broke the spirits of his father, who did not long survive him.

7. Richard II. succeeded his grandfather, 1377, at the age of 11. Charles VI. soon after became king of France at the age of 12 [A.D. 1380], and both kingdoms suffered from the distractions attending a regal minority. In England the contests for power between the king's uncles, Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, embroiled all public measures, and the consequent disorders required a stronger hand to compose them than that of the weak and facile Richard. Taking advantage of the king's absence, then engaged in quelling an insurrection in Ireland, Henry of Lancaster rose in open rebellion, and compelled Richard at his return to resign the crown. The Parliament confirmed his deposition, and he was soon after privately assassinated. Thus began the contentions between the houses of York and Lancaster.

XXV.—*England and France in the Fifteenth Century.—State of Manners.*

1. Henry IV. ascended the throne on the deposition of Richard II., 1399, and had immediately to combat a rebellion raised by the earl of Northumberland, for placing Mortimer, the heir of the house of York, on the throne. The Scotch and Welsh took part with the rebels, but their united forces were defeated at Shrewsbury, and

their leader, young Percy (Hotspur), killed on the field. A second rebellion, headed by the Archbishop of York, was quelled by the capital punishment of its author. The secular arm was rigorously extended against the followers of Wickliff, and this reign saw the first detestable examples of religious persecution. The life of Henry was embittered by the youthful disorders of his son the Prince of Wales, who afterwards nobly redeemed his character. Henry IV. died 1413, at the age of 46.

2. Henry V. took advantage of the disorders of France, from the temporary insanity of its sovereign Charles VI., and the factious struggles for power between the dukes of Burgundy and Orleans, to invade the kingdom with a large army, which a contagious distemper wasted down to a fifth of its numbers; yet with this handful of resolute and hardy troops he defeated the French army of 60,000, under the Constable d'Albert, in the famous battle of Agincourt, in which 10,000 of the enemy were slain, and 14,000 made prisoners, October 24, 1415. Returning to England to recruit his forces, he landed again with an army of 25,000, and fought his way to Paris. The insane monarch, with his court, fled to Troyes, and Henry pursuing, terminated the war by a treaty with the queen-mother and the Duke of Burgundy, by which it was agreed that he should marry the daughter of Charles VI., and receive the kingdom of France as her dowry, which, till the death of her father, he should govern as regent [1420.]

3. Meantime the return of Henry to England gave the dauphin hopes of the recovery of his kingdom. He was victorious in an engagement with the English, under the Duke of Clarence; but his success was of no longer duration than the absence of the English sovereign, who was himself hastening to the period of his triumphs. Seized with a mortal distemper, Henry died in the 34th year of his age, 1422, one of the most heroic princes that ever swayed the sceptre of England. His brother, the Duke of Bedford, was declared Regent of France, and Henry VI., an infant nine months old, was proclaimed King at Paris [on the decease of Charles VI.] and at London, 1422.

4. Charles VII. recovered France by slow degrees. With the aid of a young female enthusiast, the maid of Orleans, whom the credulity of the age supposed to be

inspired by Heaven, he gained several important advantages over the English, which the latter [or rather the Burgundians] inhumanly revenged, by burning this heroine as a sorceress [A.D. 1450]. Her death was of equal advantage to the French as her life had been. The government of the English was universally detested: it was a struggle of many years; but at length, in 1450, they were deprived of all they had ever possessed in France, except Calais and Guignes. Charles, when he had restored his kingdom to peace, governed it with admirable wisdom and moderation. [He died in 1461, and was succeeded by his son, Louis XI.]

5. The state of England and of France, the two most polished kingdoms in Europe, furnishes a good criterion of the condition of society in those ages of which we have been treating. Even in the large cities, the houses were roofed with thatch, and had no chimneys. Glass windows were extremely rare, and the floors were covered with straw. In England, wine was sold only in the shops of the apothecaries. Paper made from linen rags was first manufactured in the beginning of the 15th century;* and the use of linen for shirts was at that time a very rare piece of luxury. Yet it appears, that even before that age the progress of luxury had excited a serious alarm; for the parliament under Edward III. found it necessary to prohibit the use of gold and silver in apparel to all who had not a hundred pounds a year; and Charles VI. of France ordained, that none should presume to entertain with more than two dishes and a mess of soup. Before the reign of Edward I. the whole country of England was plundered by robbers in great bands, who laid waste entire villages; and some of the household-officers of Henry III. excused themselves for robbing on the highway, because the king allowed them no wages. In 1313 the abbot and monks of Westminster were indicted for robbing the king's exchequer, but acquitted. The admirable laws of Edward I. which acquired him the title of the English Justinian, give strong testimony of the miserable policy and barbarism of the preceding times.

* The first manufactory of linen paper of which any certain account has been preserved is that which existed at Nuremberg A.D. 1390. The discoverer of this important art is unknown. Cotton paper was used in China before the Christian era. ED.

XXVI.—*Decline and Fall of the Greek Empire.*

1. In the 14th century the Turks were proceeding by degrees to encroach on the frontiers of the Greek empire. The Sultan Ottoman had fixed the seat of his government at Byrsa in Bithynia, and his son Orcan extended his sovereignty to the Propontis, and obtained in marriage the daughter of the emperor John Cantacuzenos. About the middle of the century the Turks crossed over into Europe, and took Adrianople. The emperor John Palæologus, after meanly soliciting aid from the pope, concluded a humiliating treaty with sultan Amurat, and gave his son as a hostage to serve in the Turkish army.

2. Bajazet, the successor of Amurat, compelled the emperor to destroy his fort of Galata, and to admit a Turkish judge into the city. He prepared now to besiege Constantinople in form, when he was forced to change his purpose, and defend himself against the victorious Tamerlane.

3. Timur-bek or Tamerlane, a prince of the Usbek Tartars, and descended from Gengis Khan, after the conquest of Persia, and a great part of India and Syria, was invited by the Asiatic princes, enemies of Bajazet, to protect them against the Ottoman power, which threatened to overwhelm them. Tamerlane, flattered by this request, imperiously summoned the Turk to renounce his conquests; a message answered with a proud defiance. The armies met near Angoria (Ancyra) in Phrygia, and Bajazet was totally defeated and made prisoner by Tamerlane, 1402. The conqueror made Samarcand the capital of his empire, and there received the homage of all the princes of the east. Illiterate himself, he was solicitous for the cultivation of literature and science in his dominions; and Samarcand became for a while the seat of learning, politeness, and the arts, but was destined to relapse, after a short period, into its ancient barbarism.

4. The Turks, after the death of Tamerlane, resumed their purpose of destroying the empire of the east. Amurat II., a prince of a singular character, had, on the faith of a solemn treaty with the king of Poland, devoted his days to retirement and study. A violation of the treaty, by an attack from the Poles on his dominions, made him quit his solitude. He engaged and cut to pieces the Polish army, with their perfidious sovereign, and then

calmly returned to his retreat, till a similar crisis of public expediency once more brought him into active life. He left his dominions to his son Mahomet II., surnamed the Great, who resumed the project for the destruction of Constantinople; but its fall was a second time retarded by the necessity in which the Turks were unexpectedly placed, of defending their own dominions against a powerful invader.

5. Scanderbeg (John Castriot), prince of Albania, whose territories had been seized by Amurat II., was educated by the Sultan as his own child, and, when of age, intrusted with the command of an army, which he employed in wresting from Amurat his paternal kingdom, 1443. By great talents and military skill, he maintained his independent sovereignty against the whole force of the Turkish empire [for a period of 23 years].

6. Mahomet II., son of the philosophic Amurat, a youth of 21 years of age, resumed the plan of extinguishing the empire of the Greeks, and making Constantinople the capital of the Ottoman power. Its indolent inhabitants made but a feeble preparation for defence, and the powers of Europe looked on with the most supine indifference. The Turks assailed the city both on the land side and that of the sea; and, battering down its walls with their cannon, entered sword in hand, and massacred all who opposed them. The emperor Constantine was slain; the city surrendered; and thus was finally extinguished the eastern empire of the Romans, A.D. 1453, which, from the building of its capital by Constantine the Great, had subsisted 1123 years. The imperial edifices were preserved from destruction, the churches converted into mosques; but the exercise of their religion was allowed to all the Christians. From that time the Greek Christians have regularly chosen their own patriarch, whom the sultan instals; although his authority continues to be disputed by the Latin patriarch, who is chosen by the pope. Mahomet the Great liberally patronized the arts and sciences; and to compensate for the migration of those learned Greeks, who, on the fall of the empire, spread themselves over the countries of Europe, invited both artists and men of letters to his capital from other kingdoms.

7. The taking of Constantinople was followed by the conquest of Greece and Epirus: and Italy might proba-

bly have met with a similar fate, but for the fleet of the Venetians, who opposed the arms of Mahomet with considerable success, and even attacked him in Greece; but the contending powers soon after put an end to hostilities by a treaty. Mahomet the Great died at the age of 51, 1481.

XXVII.—*Government and Policy of the Turkish Empire.*

1. The government of Turkey is an absolute monarchy, the whole legislative and executive authority of the state centering in the sultan, whose power is subject to no constitutional control. It is, however, limited in some degree by religious opinion; the precepts of the Koran inculcating certain duties on the sovereign which it would be held an impiety to transgress. It is yet more strongly limited by the fear of dethronement and assassination. Under these restraints, the prince can never venture on an extreme abuse of power.

2. The spirit of the people is fitted for a subjection bordering on slavery. Concubinage being agreeable to the law of Mahomet, the grand seignior, the viziers, are born of female slaves; and there is scarce a subject of the empire of ingenuous blood by both parents. It is a fundamental maxim of the Turkish policy, that all the officers of state should be such as the sultan can entirely command, and at any time destroy, without danger to himself.

3. The grand vizier is usually intrusted with the whole functions of government, and of course subjected to the sole responsibility for all public measures. Subordinate to him are six viziers of the bench, who are his council and assessors in cases of law, of which he is supreme judge. The power of the grand vizier is absolute over all the subjects of the empire; but he cannot put to death a beglerbeg or a bashaw without the imperial signature; nor punish a janizary, unless through the medium of his military commander. The beglerbegs are the governors of several provinces, the bashaws of a single province. All dignities in the Turkish empire are personal, and dependent on the sovereign's pleasure.

4. The revenues of the grand seignior arise from taxes and customs laid on the subject, annual tributes paid by the Tartars, stated gifts from the governors of the provinces, and, above all, the confiscations of estates, from

the viziers and bashaws downwards to the lowest subjects of the empire. The certain and fixed revenues of the sovereign are small in comparison to those which are arbitrary ; and his absolute power enables him to execute great projects at a small expense.

XXVIII.—*France and Italy in the end of the Fifteenth Century.*

1. There was scarcely any vestige now remaining in France of the ancient feudal government. The only subsisting fiefs were Burgundy and Britany. Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, who sought to increase his territories by the conquest of Switzerland and Lorraine, was defeated by the Swiss, and killed in battle ; and, as he left no son, Louis XI. of France took possession of Burgundy as a male fief, 1477. The duke's daughter married Maximilian [of Austria], son of the emperor Frederic III., who, by this marriage, acquired the sovereignty of the [provinces which composed the] Netherlands.

2. The acquisition of Burgundy and of Provence, which was bequeathed to France by the Count de la Marche, increased very greatly the power of the crown. Louis XI., an odious compound of vice, cruelty, and superstition, and a tyrant to his people, was yet the author of many wise and excellent regulations of public policy. The barbarity of the public executions in his reign is beyond all belief ; yet the wisdom of his laws, the encouragement he gave to commerce, the restraints he imposed on the oppressions of the nobility, and the attention he bestowed in regulating the courts of justice, must ever be mentioned to his honour. [He died at Tours, 1483.]

3. The Count de la Marche, besides the bequest of Provence to Louis XI., left him his empty title of sovereign of the Two Sicilies. Louis was satisfied with the substantial gift ; but his son Charles VIII. was dazzled with the shadow. In the beginning of his reign he projected the conquest of Naples, and embarked in the enterprise with the most improvident precipitancy.

4. The dismembered state of Italy was favourable to his views. The popedom, during the transference of its seat to Avignon, had lost many of its territories. Mantua, Modena, and Ferrara, had their independent sovereigns. Piedmont belonged to the duke of Savoy ; Genoa and Milan to the family of Sforza. Florence, under the Me-

dici, had attained to a very high pitch of splendour. Cosmo, the founder of that family, employed a vast fortune acquired by commerce, in the improvement of his country, in acts of public munificence, and in the cultivation of the sciences and elegant arts. His high reputation obtained for himself and his posterity the chief authority in his native state. Peter de Medici, his great grandson, ruled in Florence at the period of the expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy.

5. The papacy was enjoyed at this time by Alexander VI. a monster of wickedness. The pope and the duke of Milan, who had invited Charles to this enterprise, immediately betrayed him, and joined the interest of the king of Naples. Charles, after besieging the pope in Rome, and forcing him to submission, devoutly kissed his feet. He now marched against Naples, while its timid Prince Alphonso fled to Sicily, and his son to the Isle of Ischia, after absolving his subjects from their allegiance. Charles entered Naples in triumph, and was hailed emperor and Augustus: but he lost his new kingdom in almost as short a time as he had gained it. A league was formed against France between the pope, the emperor Maximilian, Ferdinand of Arragon, Isabella of Castile, and the Venetians; and, on the return of Charles to France, the troops he had left to guard his conquests were entirely driven out of Italy.

6. It has been remarked, that from the decisive effect of this confederacy against Charles VIII. the sovereigns of Europe derived a useful lesson of policy, and first adopted the idea of preserving a balance of power, by that tacit league, which is understood to be always subsisting, for the prevention of the inordinate aggrandisement of any particular state.

7. Charles VIII. died at the age of 28, 1498; and leaving no children, the duke of Orleans succeeded to the throne of France, by the title of Louis XII.

XXIX.—*History of Spain in the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Centuries.*

1. We go back a little to the middle of the fourteenth century to trace the history of Spain. Peter of Castile, surnamed the Cruel, (for no other reason than that he employed severe means to support his just rights,) had to contend against a bastard brother, Henry of Transtamarre,

who, with the aid of a French banditti, called Malandrins, led by Bertrand du Guesclin, strove to dispossess him of his kingdom. Peter was aided by Edward the Black Prince, then sovereign of Guienne, who defeated Transtamarre, and took Bertrand prisoner; but on the return of the prince to England, Peter was attacked by his former enemies, and entirely defeated. Unable to restrain his rage in the first interview with Transtamarre, the latter put him to death with his own hand, 1361; and thus this usurper secured for himself and his posterity the throne of Castile.

2. The weakness and debauchery of one of his descendants, Henry IV. of Castile, occasioned a revolution in the kingdom. The majority of the nation rose in rebellion; the assembly of the nobles solemnly deposed their king, and, on the alleged ground of his daughter Johanna being a bastard, compelled him to settle the crown on his sister Isabella. They next brought about a marriage between Isabella and Ferdinand of Arragon, which united the monarchies of Arragon and Castile. After a ruinous civil war, the revolution was at length completed by the death of the deposed sovereign, 1474, and the retirement of his daughter Johanna to a monastery, 1479.

3. At the accession of Ferdinand and Isabella to the thrones of Arragon and Castile, Spain was in a state of great disorder, from the lawless depredations of the nobles and their vassals. It was the first object of the new sovereigns to repress these enormities, by subjecting the offenders to the utmost rigour of law, enforced by the sword. The *Holy Brotherhood* was instituted for the discovery and punishment of crimes; and the Inquisition (see *supra*, sect. 19, § 3), under the pretext of extirpating heresy and impiety, afforded the most detestable example of sanguinary persecution.

4. The Moorish kingdom of Grenada, a most splendid monarchy, but at that time weakened by faction, and a prey to civil war, offered a tempting object to the ambition of Ferdinand and Isabella. Alboacen was at war with his nephew Aboabdeli, who wanted to dethrone him; and Ferdinand aided Aboabdeli, in the view of ruining both; for no sooner was the latter in possession of the crown, by the death of Alboacen, than Ferdinand invaded his ally with the whole force of Arragon and

Castile. Grenada was besieged in 1491; and, after a blockade of eight months, surrendered to the victor. Abouabdeli, by a mean capitulation, saved his life, and purchased a retreat for his countrymen to a mountainous part of the kingdom, where they were suffered to enjoy unmolested their laws and their religion. Thus ended the dominion of the Moors in Spain, which had subsisted for 800 years.

5. Ferdinand, from that period, took the title of King of Spain. In 1492 he expelled all the Jews from his dominions, on the absurd ground that they kept in their hands the commerce of the kingdom; and Spain thus lost above 150,000 of the most industrious of her inhabitants. The exiles spread themselves over the other kingdoms of Europe, and were often the victims of a persecution equally inhuman. It would appear that Spain has felt, even to the present times, the effects of this folly, in the slow progress of the arts, and that deplorable inactivity which is the characteristic of her people. Even the discovery of the new world, which happened at this very period, and which stimulated the spirit of enterprise and industry in all the neighbouring kingdoms, produced but a feeble impression on that nation, which might, in a great degree, have monopolized its benefits. Of that great discovery we shall afterwards treat in a separate section.

XXX.—*France, Spain, and Italy in the end of the Fifteenth and beginning of the Sixteenth Century.*

1. Louis XII., eagerly bent on vindicating his right to Naples, courted the interest of Pope Alexander VI., who promised his aid, on the condition that his natural son, Cæsar Borgia, should receive from Louis the duchy of Valentinois, with the king of Navarre's sister in marriage. Louis crossed the Alps; and in the space of a few days was master of Milan and Genoa. Sforza Duke of Milan became his prisoner for life. Afraid of the power of Ferdinand of Spain, Louis joined with him in the conquest of Naples; and agreed to divide with him the conquered dominions, the pope making no scruple to sanction the partition. But the compromise was of no duration; for Alexander VI. and Ferdinand, judging it a better policy to share Italy between themselves, united their interest to strip Louis of his new territories. The Spaniards, under Gonsalvo de Cordova, defeated the French under the Duke

de Nemours and the Chevalier Bayard ; and Louis irrecoverably lost his share of the kingdom of Naples.

2. History relates with horror the crimes of Pope Alexander VI. and his son Cæsar Borgia ; their murders, robberies, profanations, incests. They compassed their ends in attaining every object of their ambition, but with the universal abhorrence of mankind, and finally met with an ample retribution for their crimes. The pope died by poison, prepared, as was alleged, by himself for an enemy ; and Borgia, stripped of all his possessions by Pope Julius II. and sent prisoner to Spain by Gonsalvo de Cordova, perished in miserable obscurity.

3. Julius II., the successor of Alexander, projected the formidable league of Cambray, 1508, with the Emperor, the Kings of France and Spain, the Duke of Savoy, and the King of Hungary, for the destruction of Venice, and dividing her territories among the confederates. They accomplished in part their design ; and Venice was on the verge of annihilation, when the pope changed his politics ; and having made the French subservient to his views of plundering the Venetians, now formed a new league with them, and the Germans and Spaniards, to expel the French from Italy, and appropriate all their conquests. The Swiss and the English co-operated in this design. The French made a brave resistance under their generals Bayard and Gaston de Foix, but were finally overpowered. Louis was compelled to evacuate Italy : Ferdinand, with the aid of Henry VIII. of England, stripped him of Navarre, and forced him to purchase a peace. He died in 1515 ; and though unfortunate in his military enterprises, from the superior abilities of his rivals Pope Julius and Ferdinand, was justly esteemed by his subjects for the wisdom and equity of his government.

XXXI.—History of England from the middle of the Fifteenth to the beginning of the Sixteenth Century.—Civil Wars of York and Lancaster.

1. We have seen France recovered from the English in the early part of the reign of Henry VI. by the talents and prowess of Charles VII. During the minority of Henry, who was a prince of no capacity, England was embroiled by the factious contention for power between his uncles, the Duke of Gloucester and the Cardinal of Win-

chester. The latter, to promote his own views of ambition, married Henry to Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regnier, the titular King of Naples, a woman of great mental endowments and singular heroism of character, but whose severity in the persecution of her enemies alienated a great part of the nobles from their allegiance, and increased the partisans of a rival claimant of the crown.

2. This was Richard Duke of York, descended by his mother from Lionel, second son of Edward III., and elder brother to John of Gaunt, the progenitor of Henry VI. The White Rose distinguished the faction of York, as the Red that of Lancaster. The party of York gained much strength from the incapacity of Henry, who was subject to fits of lunacy; and Richard was appointed lieutenant and protector of the kingdom. The authority of Henry was now annihilated; but Margaret roused her husband, in an interval of sanity, to assert his right; and the nation was divided in arms between the rival parties. In the battle of St. Albans, 5,000 of the Lancastrians were slain, and the king was taken prisoner by the Duke of York, 22nd May, 1454. Yet the parliament, while it confirmed the authority of the protector, maintained its allegiance to the king.

3. The spirit of the queen re-activated the royal party; and the Lancastrians gained such advantage, that the Duke of York fled to Ireland, while his cause was secretly maintained in England by Guy Earl of Warwick. In the battle of Northampton the party of York again prevailed, and Henry once more was brought prisoner to London, while his dauntless queen still nobly exerted herself to retrieve his fortunes. York now claimed the crown in open parliament, but prevailed only to have his right of succession ascertained on Henry's death, to the exclusion of the royal issue.

4. In the next battle the Duke of York was slain, and his party defeated; but his successor Edward, supported by Warwick, avenged this disaster by a signal victory near Tooton, in Yorkshire, in which 40,000 of the Lancastrians were slain. York was proclaimed king by the title of Edward IV., while Margaret with her dethroned husband and infant son, fled to Flanders.

5. Edward, who owed his crown to Warwick, was ungrateful to his benefactor; and the imprudence and injustice of his conduct forced that nobleman at length to

take part with the faction of Lancaster. The consequence was, that after some struggles, Edward was deposed, and Henry VI. once more restored to the throne by the hands of Warwick, now known by the epithet of the *King-maker*. But this change was of no duration: the party of York ultimately prevailed; the Lancastrians were defeated in the battle of Barnet, and the brave Warwick slain in the engagement, 1472.

6. The intrepid Margaret, whose spirit was superior to every change of fortune, prepared to strike a last blow for the crown of England in the battle of Tewkesbury. The event was fatal to her hopes: victory declared for Edward. Margaret was sent prisoner to the tower of London; and the prince, her son, a youth of high spirit, when brought into the presence of his conqueror, having nobly dared to justify his enterprise to the face of his rival, was barbarously murdered by the Dukes of Gloucester and Clarence. Henry VI. was soon after privately put to death in the tower. The heroic Margaret, ransomed by Louis XI., died in France, 1482.

7. Edward IV. thus secured on the throne by the death of all his competitors, abandoned himself without reserve to the indulgence of a vicious and tyrannical nature. He put to death, on the most frivolous pretence, his brother Clarence; and, preparing to gratify his subjects by a war with France, he died suddenly in the 42nd year of his age, poisoned, as was suspected, by his brother, Richard Duke of Gloucester, 1483.

8. Edward left two sons, the elder, Edward V., a boy of 13 years of age. Richard, Duke of Gloucester, named protector in the minority of his nephew, hired, by means of Buckingham, a mob of the dregs of the populace to declare their wish for his assumption of the crown. He yielded, with affected reluctance, to this voice of the nation, and was proclaimed king by the title of Richard III., 1483. Edward V., (after a reign of two months) together with his brother, the Duke of York, were, by command of the usurper, smothered while asleep, and privately buried in the tower.

9. These atrocious crimes found an avenger in Henry, Earl of Richmond, the surviving heir of the house of Lancaster, who, aided by Charles VIII. of France, landed in England, and revived the spirits of a party almost extinguished in the kingdom. He gave battle to Richard

in the field of Bosworth, and entirely defeated the army of the usurper, who was slain while fighting with the most desperate courage, August 22, 1485. The crown he wore in the engagement was immediately placed on the head of the conqueror. This auspicious day put an end to the civil wars of York and Lancaster. Henry VII. united the rights of both families by his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.

10. The reign of Henry VII. was of 24 years' duration ; and under his wise and politic government the kingdom recovered all the wounds it had sustained in those unhappy contests. Industry, good order, and perfect subordination, were the fruit of the excellent laws passed in his reign ; though the temper of the sovereign was despotic, and his avarice, in the latter part of his reign, prompted to the most oppressive exactions.

11. The government of Henry was disturbed by two very singular enterprises ; the attempt of Lambert Simnel, the son of a baker, to counterfeit the person of the Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence ; and the similar attempt of Perkin Warbeck, son of a Flemish Jew, to counterfeit the Duke of York, who had been smothered in the tower by Richard III. Both impostors found considerable support, but were finally defeated. Simnel, after being crowned at Dublin King of England and Ireland, ended his days in a menial office of Henry's household. Perkin, for five years, supported his cause by force of arms, and was aided by a great proportion of the English nobility. Overpowered at length, he surrendered to Henry, who condemned him to perpetual imprisonment ; but his ambitious spirit meditating a new insurrection, he was put to death as a traitor. Henry VII. died 1509, in the 53rd year of his age, and 24th of his reign.

XXXII.—*History of Scotland from the middle of the Fourteenth Century to the end of the Reign of James V.*

1. In no country of Europe had the feudal aristocracy attained to a greater height than in Scotland. The power of the great barons, while it rendered them independent, and often the rivals of their sovereign, was a perpetual source of turbulence and disorder in the kingdom. It was, therefore, a constant policy of the Scottish kings to humble the nobles, and break their factious combinations.

Robert I. attempted to retrench the vast territorial possessions of his barons, by requiring every landholder to produce the titles of his estate ; but was resolutely answered that the sword was their charter of possession.

2. On the death of Robert, in 1329, and during the minority of his son David, Edward Baliol, the son of John, formerly King of Scotland, with the aid of Edward III. of England, and supported by many of the factious barons, invaded the kingdom, and was crowned at Scone, while the young David was conveyed for security to France. The mean dependance of Baliol on the English monarch deprived him of the affections of the people. Robert, the steward of Scotland, Randolph, and Douglas, supported the Brucian interest, and, assisted by the French, restored David to his throne ; a prince destined to sustain many reverses of fortune ; for, in a subsequent invasion of the English territory by the Scots, David was taken prisoner in the battle of Durham, and conveyed to London. He remained for 11 years in captivity, and witnessed the similar fate of a brother monarch, John King of France, taken prisoner by the Black Prince in the battle of Poitiers. David was ransomed by his subjects, and restored to his kingdom in 1357 ; and he ended a turbulent reign in 1370-1. The crown passed at his demise to his nephew Robert the high steward of Scotland, in virtue of a destination made by Robert I., with consent of the states.

3. The reign of Robert II., which was of 20 years' duration, was spent in a series of hostilities between the Scots and English, productive of no material consequence to either kingdom ; and the weak and indolent disposition of his successor Robert III., who found himself unequal to the contest with his factious nobles, prompted him to resign the government to his brother, the Duke of Albany. This ambitious man formed the design of usurping the throne by the murder of his nephews, the sons of Robert. The elder, Rothsay, a prince of high spirit, was imprisoned, on pretence of treasonable designs, and starved to death. The younger, James, escaped a similar fate, which was intended for him ; but on his passage to France, whither he was sent for safety by his father, he was taken by an English ship of war, and brought prisoner to London. The weak Robert sunk under these misfortunes, and died 1405, after a reign of 15 years.

4. James I., a prince of great natural endowments, profited by a captivity of 18 years at the court of England, in adorning his mind with every valuable accomplishment. At his return to his kingdom, which in his absence had been weakly governed by the regent Albany, and suffered under all the disorders of anarchy, he bent his whole attention to the improvement and civilization of his people, by the enactment of many excellent laws, enforced with a resolute authority. The factions of the nobles, their dangerous combinations, and their domineering tyranny over their dependents, the great sources of the people's miseries, were firmly restrained, and most severely punished. But these wholesome innovations, while they procured to James the affections of the nation at large, excited the odium of the nobility, and gave birth to a conspiracy, headed by the Earl of Athole, the king's uncle, which terminated in the murder of this excellent prince, in the 44th year of his age, A.D. 1437.

5. His son James II. inherited a considerable portion of the talents of his father; and in the like purpose of restraining the inordinate power of his nobles, pursued the same maxims of government, which an impetuous temper prompted him, in some instances, to carry to the most blameable excess. The earl of Douglas, trusting to a powerful vassalage, had assumed an authority above the laws, and a state and splendour rival to those of his sovereign. He was seized, and without accusation or trial, beheaded. His successor imprudently running the same career, and boldly justifying, in a conference, his rebellious practices, was put to death by the king's own hand. Thus were the factions of the nobles quelled by a barbarous rigour of authority. To his people James was beneficent and humane, and his laws contributed materially to their civilization and prosperity. He was killed in the 30th year of his age, by the bursting of a cannon, in besieging the castle of Roxburgh, A.D. 1460.

6. His son, James III., without the talents of his predecessors, affected to tread in the same steps. To humble his nobles, he bestowed his confidence on mean favourites; an insult which the former avenged by rebellion. His brothers Albany and Mar, aided by Edward IV. of England, attempted a revolution in the kingdom, which was frustrated only by the death of Edward. In a second rebellion, the confederate nobles forced the prince of Roth-

say, eldest son of James, to appear in arms against his father. In an engagement near Bannockburn the rebels were successful, and the king was slain in the 35th year of his age, 1488.

7. James IV., a great and most accomplished prince, whose talents were equalled by his virtues, while his measures of government were dictated by a true spirit of patriotism, won by a well-placed confidence the affections of his nobility. In his marriage with Margaret, the daughter of Henry VII. of England, both sovereigns wisely sought a bond of amity between the kingdoms; but this purpose was frustrated in the succeeding reign of Henry VIII. The high spirit of the rival monarchs was easily inflamed by trifling causes of offence; and France, then at war with England, courted the aid of her ancient ally. James invaded England with a powerful army, which he wished to lead to immediate action; but the prudent delays of Surrey, the English general, wasted and weakened his force; and in the fatal battle of Flodden the Scots were defeated with prodigious slaughter. The gallant James perished in the fight, and with him almost the whole of the Scottish nobles, A.D. 1513.

8. Under the long minority of his son James V., an infant at the time of his father's death, the kingdom was feebly ruled by his uncle Albany. The aristocracy began to resume its ancient spirit of independence, which was ill-brooked by a prince of a proud and uncontrollable mind, who felt the keenest jealousy of a high prerogative. With a systematic policy he employed the church to abase the nobility, conferring all the offices of state on able ecclesiastics. The cardinal Beaton co-operated with great zeal in the designs of his master, and under him ruled the kingdom.

9. Henry VIII., embroiled with the papacy, sought an alliance with the king of Scots, but the ecclesiastical counsellors of the latter defeated this beneficial purpose. A war was thus provoked, and James was reluctantly compelled to court those nobles whom it had been hitherto his darling object to humiliate. They now determined on a disgraceful revenge. In an attack on the Scottish border the English were repelled, and an opportunity offered to the Scots of cutting off their retreat. The king gave his orders to that end, but his barons obstinately refused to advance beyond the frontier. One measure more was

wanting to drive their sovereign to despair. In a subsequent engagement with the English, 10,000 of the Scots deliberately surrendered themselves prisoners to 500 of the enemy. The high spirit of James sunk under his contending passions, and he died of a broken heart in the 33rd year of his age, a few days after the birth of a daughter, yet more unfortunate than her father, Mary queen of Scots, A.D. 1542.

XXXIII.—*On the Ancient Constitution of the Scottish Government.*

1. We have seen it a constant policy with the Scottish kings to abase the power of their nobles, and this struggle we have observed to have been the source of much misery and bloodshed; but the policy was necessary, from the dangerous ambition and lawless tyranny of those nobles, who frequently aimed at overturning the throne, and exercised the severest oppression on all their dependents. The interests, therefore, of the people, no less than the security of the prince, demanded the repression of this overbearing and destructive power. The aristocracy was, however, preserved, no less by its own strength than by the concurrence of circumstances, and chiefly by the violent and unhappy fate of the sovereigns. Meantime, although the measures they pursued were not successful, their consequences were beneficial. They restrained, if they did not destroy, the spirit of feudal oppression, and gave birth to order, wise laws, and a more tranquil administration of government.

2. The legislative power, though nominally resident in the parliament, was virtually in the king, who, by his influence, entirely controlled its proceedings. The parliament consisted of three estates, the nobles, the dignified clergy, and the lesser barons, the representatives of the towns and shires. The disposal of benefices gave the crown the entire command of the churchmen, who equalled the nobles in number, and at least a majority of the commons were the dependents of the sovereign. A committee, termed the lords of the articles, prepared every measure that was to come before the parliament, and these, by the mode of their election, were in effect nominated by the king. It is to the credit of the Scottish princes that there are few instances of their abusing an authority so extensive as that which they constitutionally enjoyed.

3. The king had anciently the supreme jurisdiction in all causes, civil and criminal, which he generally exercised through the medium of his privy council; but in 1425 James I. instituted the court of session, consisting of the chancellor and certain judges chosen from the three estates. This court was new-modelled by James V. and its jurisdiction limited to civil causes, the cognizance of crimes being committed to the justiciary. The chancellor was the highest officer of the crown, and president of the parliament. To the chamberlain belonged the care of the finances and the public police; to the high steward the charge of the king's household; the constable regulated all matters of military arrangement; and the marshal was the king's lieutenant, and master of the horse.

4. The revenue of the sovereign consisted of his domain, which was extensive, of the feudal casualties and forfeitures, the profits of the wardships of his vassals, the rents of vacant benefices, the pecuniary fines for offences, and the aids or presents occasionally given by the subject, a revenue at all times sufficient for the purposes of government, and the support of the dignity of the crown.

5. The political principles which regulated the conduct of the Scots towards other nations were obvious and simple. It had ever been an object of ambition to England to acquire the sovereignty of her sister kingdom, who was constantly on her guard against this design of her more potent neighbour. It was the wisest policy for Scotland to attach herself to France, the natural enemy of England; an alliance reciprocally courted from similar motives. In those days this attachment was justly esteemed patriotic, while the Scots who were the partisans of England were with equal justice regarded as traitors to their country. In the period of which we now treat, it was a settled policy of the English sovereigns to have a secret faction in their pay in Scotland, for the purpose of dividing and thus enslaving the nation; and to this source all the subsequent disorders of the latter kingdom are to be attributed.

XXXIV.—*A View of the Progress of Literature and Science in Europe, from the Revival of Letters down to the end of the Fifteenth Century.*

I. The first restorers of learning in Europe were the Arabians, who, in the course of their Asiatic conquests, becoming acquainted with some of the ancient Greek

authors, discovered and justly appreciated the knowledge and improvement to be derived from them. The caliphs procured from the eastern emperors copies of the ancient manuscripts, and had them carefully translated into Arabic, esteeming principally those which treated of mathematics, physic, and metaphysics. They disseminated their knowledge in the course of their conquests, and founded schools and colleges in all the countries they subdued.

2. The western kingdoms of Europe became first acquainted with the learning of the ancients through the medium of those Arabian translations. Charlemagne caused Latin translations to be made from the Arabian, and founded, after the example of the caliphs, the universities of Bononia, Pavia, Osnaburgh, and Paris. Alfred, with a similar spirit, and by similar means, introduced a taste for literature in England; but the subsequent disorders of the kingdom replunged it into barbarism. [The earliest Anglo-Saxon author was Gildas; Aldhelm, abbot of Malmesbury, Keolfrid, abbot of Wearmouth, Felix of Croyland, the Venerable Bede, Alfric, bishop of Canterbury, Kynewulf, bishop of Winchester, and Wulfstan, archbishop of York, with some others, flourished prior to the Norman conquest]. The Normans, however, brought from the continent some tincture of ancient learning, which was kept alive in the monasteries, where the monks were meritoriously employed in transcribing a few of the ancient authors, along with the legendary lives of the saints.

3. In this dawn of literature in England appeared Henry of Huntingdon and Geoffrey of Monmouth, names distinguished in the earliest annals of poetry and romance, John of Salisbury, a moralist, William of Malmesbury, annalist of the history of England before the reign of Stephen, [William Neubrigensis, the author of five books of English history from the Norman conquest to 1197,] Giraldus Cambrensis, known in the fields of history, theology, and poetry, Joseph of Exeter, author of two Latin epic poems on the Trojan war, and the war of Antioch, or the crusade, which are read with pleasure even in the present day.

4. But this era of a good taste in letters was of short duration. The taste for classical composition and historic information yielded to the barbarous subtleties of scholastic divinity taught by Lombard and Abelard; and the ab-

struse doctrines of the Roman law, which began to engage the general attention from the recent discovery of the Pandects at Amalfi, 1137. The amusements of the vulgar in those periods were metrical and prose romances, unintelligible prophecies, and fables of giants and enchanters.

5. In the middle of the 13th century appeared a distinguished genius, Roger Bacon, an English friar, whose comprehensive mind was filled with all the stores of ancient learning, who possessed a discriminating judgment to separate the precious ore from the dross, and a power of invention fitted to advance in every science which was the object of his study. He saw the insufficiency of the school philosophy, and first recommended the prosecution of knowledge by experiment and the observation of nature. He made discoveries of importance in astronomy, in optics, in chemistry and medicine, and mechanics. He reformed the calendar, discovered the construction of telescopic glasses, forgotten after his time, and revived by Galileo, and has left a plain intimation of his knowledge of the composition of gunpowder. Yet this most superior genius believed in the possibility of discovering an elixir for the prolongation of life, in the transmutation of metals into gold, and in judicial astrology.*

6. A general taste prevailed for poetical composition in the 12th and 13th centuries. The troubadours of Provence wrote sonnets, madrigals, and satirical ballads, and excelled in extempore dialogues on the subject of love, which they treated in a metaphysical and Platonic strain. They contended for the prize of poetry at solemn meetings, where princes, nobles, and the most illustrious ladies, attended to decide between the rival bards; and some of those princes, Richard I. of England, Frederick I. emperor of Germany, are celebrated themselves as troubadours of eminence. Many fragments yet remain of their compositions.

7. The transference of the papal seat to Avignon in the 14th century, familiarised the Italian poets with the songs of the troubadours, and gave a tincture of the Provençal style to their compositions, which is very observable in

* The mind of Roger Bacon was strangely compounded of almost prophetic gleams of the future course of science, and the best principles of the inductive philosophy, with a more than usual credulity in the superstitions of his own time.—Hallam's *Introd. Literature of Europe*, chap. ii. § 33.

the poetry of Petrarch and of Dante. The *Divina Comedia* of Dante first introduced the machinery of angels and devils in the room of the Pagan mythology, and is a work containing many examples of the terrible sublime. The *sonnets* and *canzoni* of Petrarch are highly tender and pathetic, though vitiated with a quaintness and conceit, which is a prevalent feature of the Italian poetry. The *Decamerone* of Boccaccio, a work of the same age, is a masterpiece for invention, ingenious narrative, and acquaintance with human nature. These authors have fixed the standard of the Italian language.

8. Contemporary with them, and of rival merit was the English Chaucer [born in 1328], who displays all the talents of Boccaccio through the medium of excellent poetry. The works of Chaucer discover an extensive knowledge of the sciences, an acquaintance both with ancient and modern learning, particularly the literature of France and Italy, and, above all, a most acute-discernment of life and manners.

9. Of a similar character are poems of Gower, [Chaucer's cotemporary] but of a graver cast, and a more chastened morality. Equal to these eminent men, in every species of literary merit, was the accomplished James I. of Scotland, of which his remaining writings bear convincing testimony. The doubtful Rowley of Bristol, is said to have adorned the 15th century.*

10. Spain at this period began to emerge from ignorance and barbarism, and to produce a few of those works which are enumerated with approbation in the whimsical but judicious criticism of Cervantes (*Don Quixote*, B. 1, c. 6.)

11. But although poetry attained in those ages a considerable degree of splendour, there was but little advancement in general literature and science. History was disgraced by the internixture of miracle and fable; though we find much curious information in the writings of Matthew of Westminster, of Walsingham, Everard, Duysburg, and the Chronicles of Froissart and Monstrelet. Philip de Comines happily describes the reigns of Louis XI. and Charles VIII. of France. Villani and Platina are valuable recorders of the affairs of Italy.

* Thomas Chatterton, was the author of the poems published under the name of Rowley. This unfortunate genius having long endured the distresses of poverty, and made an ineffectual application to Horace Walpole for relief, terminated a miserable existence by committing suicide, 1770.—ED.

12. A taste for classical learning in the 15th century, led to the discovery of many of the ancient authors. Poggio discovered the writings of Quintilian and several of the compositions of Cicero, which stimulated to farther research, and the recovery of many valuable remains of Greek and Roman literature. But this taste was not generally diffused. [The first half of the 15th century has been sometimes called the age of Poggio Bracciolini, which it expresses not very inaccurately as to his literary life, since he was born in 1381 and died in 1459; but it seems to involve too high a compliment. The chief merit of Poggio was his diligence, aided by good fortune, in recovering lost works of Roman literature, that lay mouldering in the repositories of convents. Hence we owe to this man eight orations of Cicero, a complete Quintilian, Columella, part of Lucretius, three books of Valerius Flaccus, Silius Italicus, Ammianus Marcellinus, Tertullian, and several less important writers; twelve comedies of Plautus were also recovered in Germany through his directions. Poggio besides this was undoubtedly a man of considerable learning for his time, and still greater sense and spirit as a writer, though he never reached a very correct or elegant style.—*Hallam's Introd. Lit. of Europe*, chap. ii. § 2.] France and England were extremely barbarous. The library at Oxford contained only 600 volumes, and there were but four classics in the royal library at Paris. But a brighter period was approaching. The dispersion of the Greeks, on the fall of the eastern empire, in the end of the 15th century, diffused a taste for polite literature over all the west of Europe. A succession of popes, endowed with a liberal and enlightened spirit, gave every encouragement to learning and the sciences, and, above all the noble discovery of the *art of printing* contributed to their rapid advancement and dissemination, and gave a certain assurance of the perpetuation of every valuable art, and the progressive improvement of human knowledge.

13. The rise of dramatic composition among the moderns, is to be traced to the absurd and ludicrous representation in the churches of the scripture histories, called in England mysteries, miracles, and moralities. These were first exhibited in the 12th century, and continued to the 16th, when in England they were prohibited by law. Of these we have amusing specimens in Warton's history

of English poetry. Profane dramas were substituted in their place ; and a mixture of the sacred and profane appears to have been known in France as early as 1300. In Spain the farcical mysteries keep their ground to the present day ; nor was it till the end of the 16th century, that any regular composition for the stage was known in that country. The Italians are allowed by their own writers to have borrowed their theatre from the French and English.

XXXV.—*View of the Progress of Commerce in Europe before the Portuguese Discoveries.*

1. Before giving an account of the discoveries of the Portuguese in the 15th century, in exploring a new route to India, we shall present a short view of the progress of commerce in Europe down to that period.

The boldest naval enterprise of the ancients was the *Periplus* of Hanno, who sailed (570 B.C.) from Carthage to the coast of Guinea, within four or five degrees of the line. Africa was not known by the ancients to be almost circumnavigable. They had a very limited knowledge of the habitable earth. They believed that both the torrid and frigid zones were uninhabitable ; and they were but very imperfectly acquainted with a great part of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, Poland, the greatest part of Russia, were unknown to them. In Ptolemy's description of the globe, the 63rd degree of latitude is the limit of the earth to the north, the equinoctial to the south.

2. Britain was circumnavigated in the time of Domitian. The Romans frequented it for the purpose of commerce ; and Tacitus mentions London as a celebrated resort of merchants. The commerce of the ancients was, however, chiefly confined to the Mediterranean. In the flourishing periods of the Constantinopolitan empire, the merchandise of India was imported from Alexandria ; but, after the conquest of Egypt by the Arabians, it was carried up the Indus, and thence by land to the Oxus, which then ran into the Caspian sea ; thence it was brought up to the Wolga, and again carried over land to the Don, whence it descended into the Euxine.

3. After the fall of the western empire, commerce was

long at a stand in Europe. When Attila was ravaging Italy, the Veneti took refuge in the small islands at the northern extremity of the Adriatic, and there founded Venice, A.D. 452, which began very early to equip small fleets, and trade to the coasts of Egypt and the Levant, for spices and other merchandise of Arabia and India. Genoa, Florence, and Pisa, imitated this example, and began to acquire considerable wealth; but Venice retained her superiority over these rival states, and gained considerable territories on the opposite coast of Illyricum and Dalmatia.

4. The maritime cities of Italy profited by the crusades, in furnishing the armies with supplies, and bringing home the produce of the east. The Italian merchants established manufactures similar to those of Constantinople. Rogero, king of Sicily, brought artisans from Athens, and established a silk manufacture at Palermo in 1130. The sugar-cane was planted in Sicily in the 12th century, and thence carried to Madeira, and finally made its way to the West Indies.

5. In the 12th and 13th centuries, the Italians were the only commercial people of Europe. Venice set the first example of a national bank in 1157, which has maintained its credit to the present times. The only trade of France, Spain, and Germany, at this time, was carried on at stated fairs and markets, to which traders resorted from all quarters, paying a tax to the sovereign or the lords of the territory. The more enterprising bought a privilege of exemption, by paying at once a large sum, and were thence called *free traders*.

6. In the middle ages, the Italian merchants, usually called Lombards, were the factors of all the European nations, and were enticed by privileges granted by the sovereigns, to settle in France, Germany, and England. They were not only traders in commodities, but bankers, or money-dealers; but they found in this last business a severe restraint from the canon-law prohibiting the taking of interest; and hence, from the necessary privacy of their bargains, there were no bounds to exorbitant usury. The Jews, too, who were the chief dealers in money, brought disrepute on the trade of banking, and frequently suffered, on that account, the most intolerable persecution and confiscation of their fortunes. To guard against these injuries, they invented *bills of exchange*.

7. The Lombard merchants awakened a spirit of commerce, and gave birth to manufactures, which were generally encouraged by the sovereigns in the different kingdoms of Europe. Among the chief encouragements was the institution of corporations or monopolies, the earliest of which are traced up to the 11th century; a policy beneficial, and perhaps necessary where the spirit of industry is low, and manufactures are in their infancy, but of hurtful consequence where trade and manufactures are flourishing.

8. Commerce began to spread towards the north of Europe about the end of the 12th century. The sea-ports on the Baltic traded with France and Britain, and with the Mediterranean by the staple of the Isle of Oleron, near the mouth of the Garonne, then possessed by the English. The commercial laws of Oleron and Wisbuy (on the Baltic) regulated for many ages the trade of Europe. To protect their trade from piracy, Lubec, Hamburg, and most of the northern sea-ports, joined in a confederacy, under certain general regulations, termed the *League of the Hanse-towns*; a union so beneficial in its nature, and so formidable in point of strength, as to have its alliance courted by the predominant powers of Europe.

9. For the trade of the Hanse-towns with the southern kingdoms, Bruges on the coast of Flanders, was found a convenient entrepôt, and thither the Mediterranean merchants brought the commodities of India and the Levant to exchange with the produce and manufactures of the North. The Flemings now began to encourage trade and manufactures, which thence spread to the Brabanters; but their growth being checked by the impolitic sovereigns of those provinces, they found a more favourable field in England, which was destined thence to derive the great source of its national opulence.

10. The Britons had very early seen the importance of commerce. Bede relates that London, in 614, was frequented by foreigners for the purpose of trade; and William of Malmesbury speaks of it in 1041, as a most populous and wealthy city. The cinque ports, Dover, Hastings, Hythe, Romney, and Sandwich, obtained in that age their privileges and immunities on condition of furnishing each five ships of war. These ports are now eight in number, and send their members to parliament.

11. The woollen manufacture of England was consi-

derable in the 12th century. Henry II. incorporated the weavers of London, and gave them various privileges. By a law passed in his reign, all cloth made of foreign wool was condemned to be burnt. Scotland at this time seems to have possessed a considerable source of wealth, as is evident from the payment of the ransom of William the Lion, which was 10,000 marks, equal to 100,000 pounds sterling of present money. The English found it difficult to raise double that sum for the ransom of Richard I., and the Scots contributed a proportion of it. The English sovereigns at first drew a considerable revenue from the custom on wool exported to be manufactured abroad; but becoming soon sensible of the benefit of encouraging its home manufacture, they invited, for that purpose, the foreign artisans and merchants to reside in England, and gave them valuable immunities. Edward III. was peculiarly attentive to trade and manufactures, as appears by the laws passed in his reign, and he was bountiful in the encouragement of foreign artisans. The succeeding reigns were not so favourable; and during the civil wars of York and Lancaster, the spirit of trade and manufactures greatly declined; nor was it till the accession of Henry VII. that they began once more to revive and flourish. In that interval, however, of their decay in England, commerce and the arts were encouraged in Scotland by James I. and his successors, as much as the comparatively rude and turbulent state of the kingdom would permit. The herring fishery then began to be vigorously promoted; and the duties laid on the exportation of woollen cloth show that this manufacture was then considerable among the Scots. Glasgow began, in 1420, to acquire wealth by the fisheries, but had little or no foreign trade till after the discovery of America and the West Indies.

12. Henry VII. gave the most liberal encouragement to trade and manufactures, particularly the woollen, by inviting foreign artisans, and establishing them at Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, &c. The navigation acts were passed in his reign, and commercial treaties were formed with the continental kingdoms, for the protection of the merchant shipping. Such was the state of commerce at the time when the Portuguese made those great discoveries which opened a new route to India, and gave a circulation to its wealth over most of the nations of Europe.

XXXVI.—*Discoveries of the Portuguese in the Fifteenth Century, and their effects on the Commerce of Europe.*

1. The polarity of the magnet had been known in Europe as early as the 13th century, but the compass was not used in sailing till the middle of the 14th; and another century had elapsed from that period, while yet the European mariners scarcely ventured out of the sight of their coasts. The eastern ocean was little otherwise known than by name; and the Atlantic was supposed to be a boundless expanse of sea, extending probably to the eastern shores of Asia. In the belief that the torrid zone was uninhabitable, a promontory on the African coast, in the 29th degree of north latitude, was termed Cape Non, as forming an impassable limit.

2. In the beginning of the 15th century, John I., king of Portugal, sent a few vessels to explore the African coast; and these doubling Cape Non proceeded to Cape Boyador, within two degrees of the northern tropic. Prince Henry, the son of John, equipped a single ship, which, being driven out to sea, landed on the island of Porto Santo. This involuntary experiment emboldened the mariners to abandon their timid mode of coasting, and launch into the open sea. In 1420, the Portuguese discovered Madeira, where they established a colony, and planted the Cyprus vine and the sugar-cane. [The Canaries were discovered 1424; and the Azores 1431.]

3. The spirit of enterprise thus awakened, Prince Henry obtained from Eugene IV. a bull granting to the Portuguese the property of all the countries they might discover between Cape Non and India. Under John II. of Portugal, the Cape Verd Islands were discovered [A.D. 1460] and colonised; and the fleets, advancing to the coast of Guinea [and Nigritia], brought home gold-dust, gums, and ivory. Passing the equator, the Portuguese entered a new hemisphere, and boldly proceeded to the extremity of the continent. In 1497, a fleet under Vasco de Gama [the Portuguese admiral], doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and sailing onwards beyond the mouths of the Arabian and Persian Gulfs, arrived at Calicut, on the Malabar coast, after a voyage of 1500 leagues, performed in thirteen months [in the third year of King Emanuel, 1498].

4. De Gama entered into an alliance with the Rajah of Calicut, a tributary of the Mogul empire, and returned to Lisbon with specimens of the wealth and produce of the country. A succeeding fleet formed settlements; and vanquishing the opposition of the native princes, soon achieved the conquest of all the coast of Malabar. The city of Goa, taken by storm [A.D. 1511], became the residence of a Portuguese viceroy, and the capital of their Indian settlements.

5. The Venetians, who had hitherto engrossed the Indian trade by [the ports of] Alexandria [and Beirout in Syria], now lost it for ever. After an ineffectual project of cutting through the isthmus of Suez, they attempted to intercept the Portuguese by their fleets stationed at the mouth of the Red Sea and Persian Gulf, but were everywhere encountered by a superior force. The Portuguese made settlements in both the gulfs, and vigorously prosecuted their conquest on the Indian coast and sea. The rich island of Ceylon, the kingdoms of Pegu, Siam, and Malacca, were speedily subdued, and a settlement established in Bengal. They proceeded onward to China [in 1517], hitherto scarcely known to the Europeans but by the account of a single Venetian traveller, Marco Paolo, in the 13th century; and they obtained the emperor's permission to form a settlement at Macao; thus opening a commerce with that immense empire, and the neighbouring islands of Japan. [A.D. 1542]. In the space of fifty years, the Portuguese were masters of the whole trade of the Indian Ocean, and sovereigns of a large extent of Asiatic territory.

6. These discoveries produced a wonderful effect on the commerce of Europe. The produce of the spice islands was computed to be worth annually 200,000 ducats to Lisbon. The Venetians, after every effort to destroy the trade of the Portuguese, offered to become sole purchasers of all the spice brought to Europe, but were refused. Commercial industry was roused in every quarter, and manufactures made a rapid progress. Lyons, Tours, Abbeville, Marseilles, Bourdeaux, acquired immense wealth. Antwerp and Amsterdam became the great marts of the north. The former owed its splendour to the decline of Bruges, which was ruined by civil commotions; and the Portuguese made Antwerp their entrepôt for the supply of the northern kingdoms. It continued highly flourishing till the revolt of the Netherlands, in the end of the 16th century,

when it was taken by the Spaniards, and its port destroyed by blocking up the Scheldt.

7. The trade of Holland rose on the fall of Antwerp. Amsterdam had become considerable after the decline of the Hanseatic confederacy in 1428, but rose into splendour and high commercial opulence from the destruction of Antwerp: and the United Provinces, dependent on industry alone for their support, became a model of commercial activity to all other nations.

8. It is not to be doubted that Britain felt the effect of that general stimulus which the Portuguese discoveries gave to the trade of Europe; but other causes had a more sensible operation to that end in England. The Reformation, by suppressing the convents, and restoring many thousands to society, and the cutting off the papal exactions, which drained the kingdom of its wealth, the politic laws passed in the reign of Henry VIII. and the active patriotism of Elizabeth, were vigorous incentives to national industry.

9. From the time of Henry VIII. to the present, the commerce and manufactures of England have been uniformly progressive. The rental of England in lands and houses did not then exceed five millions per annum; and it is now [1801] above eighteen millions. The unmanufactured wool of one year's growth is supposed to be worth two millions; when manufactured, as it now is, by British hand, instead of being sent abroad as formerly for that purpose, it is worth eight millions. Above a million and a half of hands are employed in that manufacture alone; half a million are employed in the manufactures of iron, steel, copper, brass, lead; the linen manufactures of England, Scotland, and Ireland, occupy near a million; and a number not much inferior is employed in the fisheries. It is presumable, on the whole, that nearly a fourth of the population of the united kingdom is actually employed in commerce and manufactures.*

10. The vast increase of the national wealth of Britain appears chiefly, 1st, From the increase of population, which is supposed to be nearly five to one (at least in the large cities) since the reign of Elizabeth; 2dly. From the great addition made to the cultivated lands of the kingdom, and the high improvement of agriculture since that

* These estimates only apply to 1801, since which time they have been subject to much fluctuation. — Ed.

period, whence more than quadruple the quantity of food is produced ; 3dly. From the increase of the commercial shipping, at least six-fold within the same time ; 4thly. From the comparative low rate of interest, which is demonstrative of the increase of wealth. The consequences of the diffusion of the commercial spirit are most important to the national welfare : From general industry arises influence, joined to a spirit of independence ; and on this spirit rests the freedom of the British constitution, and all the blessings we enjoy under its protection.

XXXVII.—*Germany and France in the Reigns of Charles V. and Francis I.*

1. We resume the detail of the history of Europe at the beginning of the 16th century ; previously remarking, that the Germanic empire continued for above fifty years in a state of languid tranquillity, from the time of Albert II., the successor of Sigismund, during the long reign of Frederick III. whose son Maximilian acquired, by his marriage with Mary duchess of Burgundy, the sovereignty of the Netherlands. Maximilian was elected emperor in 1493 ; and by establishing a perpetual peace between the separate Germanic states, laid the foundation of the subsequent grandeur of the empire.

2. Philip, Archduke of Austria, son of Maximilian, married Jane, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella ; and of that marriage the eldest son was Charles V., who succeeded to the throne of Spain in 1516, and who, on the death of his grandfather Maximilian, preferred his claim to the vacant imperial throne. He had for his competitor Francis I. of France, who had distinguished himself by the conquest of the Milanese, and the adjustment of the contending interests of the Italian states. The German electors, afraid of the exorbitant power both of Charles and of Francis, would have rejected both, and conferred the imperial crown on Frederick, Duke of Saxony ; but this extraordinary man declined the proffered dignity, and his counsel determined the election in favour of Charles of Austria, 1519.

3. Charles V. and Francis I. were now declared enemies, and their mutual claims on each other's dominions were the subject of perpetual hostility. The emperor claimed Artois as part of the Netherlands. Francis pre-

pared to make good his right to the two Sicilies. Charles had to defend Milan, and support his title to Navarre, which had been wrested from France by his grandfather Ferdinand. Henry VIII. of England was courted by the rival monarchs, as the weight of England was sufficient to turn the scale, where the power of each was nearly balanced.

4. The first hostile attack was made by Francis on the kingdom of Navarre, which he won and lost in the course of a few months. The emperor attacked Picardy, and his troops at the same time drove the French out of the Milanese. On the death of Leo X., Charles placed cardinal Adrian on the papal throne, 1521; and by the promise of elevating Wolsey, the minister of Henry VIII., to that dignity, on the death of Adrian, gained the alliance of the English monarch in his war against France.

5. At this critical time Francis imprudently quarrelled with his best general, the constable Bourbon, who, in revenge, deserted to the emperor, and was by him invested with the chief command of his armies. The imperial generals were far superior in abilities to their opponents. The French were defeated at Biagrasa, and Charles was carrying every thing before him in Italy, when Francis entered the Milanese, and retook the capital; but, in the subsequent battle of Pavia, his troops were entirely defeated, and the French monarch became the constable Bourbon's prisoner, 1525.

6. The emperor made no advantage of his good fortune. By the treaty of Madrid, Francis regained his liberty, on yielding to Charles the duchy of Burgundy, and the superiority of Flanders and Artois. He gave his two sons as hostages for the fulfilment of these conditions; but the states refused to ratify them, and the failure was compromised for a sum of money.

7. On a renewal of the war, Henry VIII. took part with France, and Charles lost an opportunity of obtaining the sovereignty of Italy. The papal army in the French interest was defeated by the constable Bourbon, and the pope himself made prisoner; but Bourbon was killed in the siege of Rome, and Charles allowed the pope to purchase his release.

8. After the conclusion of the peace of Cambray, 1529, Charles visited Italy, and received the imperial diadem from Pope Clement VII. The Turks having invaded

Hungary, the emperor marched against them in person, and compelled the sultan Solymán, with an army of 300,000 men, to evacuate the country. He soon after embarked for Africa, to replace the dethroned Muley Hassan in the sovereignty of Tunis and Algiers, which had been usurped by Hayradin Barbarossa, and he achieved the enterprise with honour. His reputation exceeded at this period that of all the sovereigns of Europe, both for political ability, for real power, and the extent and opulence of his dominions.

9. Francis was glad to ally himself even with the Turks to cope with the Imperialists, and Barbarossa invaded Italy; but the troops of Charles prevented the co-operation of the French, and separately defeated and dispersed the allied powers, while another army of the Imperialists ravaged Champagne and Picardy.

10. In the interval of a truce, which was concluded at Nice for ten years between the rival monarchs, Charles passed through France to the Netherlands, and was entertained by Francis with the most magnificent hospitality. He had promised to grant to the French king his favourite desire, the investiture of Milan; but, failing to keep his word, the war was renewed with double animosity. The French and Turkish fleets attacked Nice, but were dispersed by the Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria. In Italy the French were victorious in the battle of Cerizoles, but drew no benefit from this partial advantage. The Imperialists, on the whole, had a decided superiority, and France must have been undone, had not the disorders of Germany, from the contending interests of the catholics and protestants, forced the emperor to conclude the treaty of Crépi with Francis, 1544; who, at the same time, purchased a peace with Henry VIII., who had once more taken part with his rival. Francis died soon after, 1547; a prince of great spirit and abilities, and of a generous and noble mind, unfortunate only from the necessity of struggling against a power which overmatched him both in policy and in resources.

11. A short time before this period was founded (1535)* the order of the Jesuits by Ignatius Loyola [who died 1556]. The principle of the order was implicit obedience and submission to the pope. The brethren were not con-

* The bull of Pope Paul III., legalizing the society, is dated 27th September, 1540.—ED.

fined to their cloisters, but allowed to mix with the world ; and thus, by gaining the confidence of princes and statesmen, they were enabled to direct the policy of nations to the great end of establishing the supreme authority of the holy see. The wealth they accumulated, the extent of their power, and the supposed consequences of their intrigues to the peace of nations, excited at length a general hostility to their order ; and the institution has recently been abolished in all the kingdoms of Europe.*

12. If Charles V. aimed at universal empire, he was ever at a distance from the object of his wishes. The formidable confederacy of the protestants to preserve their liberties and their religion, gave him perpetual disquiet in Germany. He never could form his dominions into a well-connected body, from the separate national interests of the Spaniards, Flemish, and Germans ; and even the imperial states were divided by their jealousies, political and religious. The hostilities of foreign powers gave him continual annoyance. He found in Henry II., the successor of Francis, an antagonist as formidable as his father. His cares and difficulties increased as he advanced in life, and at length entirely broke the vigour of his mind. In a state of melancholy despondency, he retired from the world at the age of 56, resigning first the kingdom of Spain to his son Philip II., 1556, and afterwards the imperial crown in favour of his brother Ferdinand, who was elected emperor 24th February, 1558.

XXXVIII.—*Observations on the Constitution of the German Empire.*

1. Previous to the reign of Maximilian I. the Germanic empire was subject to all the disorders of the feudal governments. The general diets of the states were tumultuous and indecisive, and their constant wars with each other kept the whole in anarchy and barbarism. Wenceslaus, in 1383, endeavoured to remedy these evils by the enactment of a general peace, but no effectual means were taken for securing it. Albert II. attempted to accomplish the same end, and had some success. He divided Germany into six circles, each regulated by its own diet ; but the jealousies of the states prompted them con-

* The bull of Pope Clement XIV. suppressing the order, is dated 21st July, 1773 ; and although the order was revived by Pope Pius in 1814, it is, notwithstanding, virtually extinct

stantly to hostilities, which there was no superior power sufficient to restrain.

2. At length Maximilian I. procured, in 1500, that solemn enactment which established a perpetual peace among the Germanic states, under the cogent penalty of the aggressor being treated as a common enemy. He established the imperial chamber for the settlement of all differences. The empire was divided anew into ten circles, each sending its representatives to the imperial chamber, and bound to enforce the public laws through its own territory. A regency was appointed to subsist in the intervals of the diet, composed of 20 members, over whom the emperor presided.

3. These regulations, however wise, would probably have failed of their end, but for the influence of the house of Austria, which has for three centuries continued to occupy the imperial throne. The ambition and policy of Charles V. would have been dangerous to the freedom of the German princes, had not the new system of preserving a balance of power in Europe made these princes find allies and protectors sufficient to traverse the emperor's schemes of absolute dominion. He attained, however, an authority far beyond that of any of his predecessors. The succeeding emperors imitated his policy, but without his talents, and therefore found yet stronger obstacles to their encroachments on the freedom of the states.

4. The Germanic liberties were settled for the last time by the treaty of Westphalia in 1648, which fixed the emperor's prerogatives, and the privileges of the states. The constitution of the empire is not framed for the ordinary ends of government, the prosperity and happiness of the people. It regards not the rights of the subjects, but only the independence of the several princes, and its sole object is to maintain each in the enjoyment of its sovereignty, and prevent usurpations and encroachments on each other's territories. It has no relation to the particular government of the states, each of which has its own laws and constitution, some more free, and others more despotic.

5. The general diet has the power of enacting the public laws of the empire. It consisted of three colleges, the electors, the princes, and the free cities. All such public laws, and all general measures, were the subject of the separate deliberation of the electoral college and that

of the princes. When jointly approved by them; the resolution was canvassed by the college of the free cities, and if agreed to, became a *placitum* of the empire. If approved finally by the emperor, it was a *conclusum* or general law. If disapproved, the resolution was of no effect. Moreover, the emperor must be the proposer of all general laws. Still further, no complaint or request could be made by any of the princes to the diet without the approbation of the elector Archbishop of Mentz, who might refuse it at his pleasure. These constitutional defects were the more hurtful in their consequences, from the separate and often contending interests of the princes, who had all the rights of sovereignty, the power of contracting foreign alliances, and were frequently possessed of foreign dominions of far greater value than their imperial territories.

6. The Germanic constitution had, however, in some respects its advantages. The particular diets of each circle tended to unite those princes in all matters of national concern, whatever might be the discordance of their individual interests. The regulations made in those diets made up for the want of a general legislative power. Besides the circular diets, the electors, the princes, the free cities, the catholics, and the protestants, held their particular diets, when their common interests required it; and these powers balanced each other. Considered, therefore, solely in the light of a league of several independent princes and states associating for their common benefit, the Germanic constitution had many advantages, in promoting general harmony, securing the rights of its members, and preventing the weak from being oppressed by the strong.

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XXXIX.—*Of the Reformation in Germany and Switzerland, and the Revolution in Denmark and Sweden.*

1. The age of Charles V. is the era of the reformation of religion, of the discovery of the New World, and of the highest splendour of the fine arts in Italy and the south of Europe. We shall treat in order of each of these great objects; and first, of the reformation.

The voluptuous taste and the splendid projects of pope Leo X. demanding large supplies of money, he instituted through all the Christian kingdoms a sale of indulgences, or remittances from the pain of purgatory [an expedient adopted by several of his predecessors for the purpose of

recruiting their finances]. This traffic being abused to the most shocking purposes, Martin Luther, an Augustine friar, took upon him to preach against it, and to inveigh with acrimony against the power which authorized it. He found many willing hearers, particularly in the electorate of Saxony, of which the Prince Frederick was his friend and protector. Leo X. condemned his tenets by a papal bull [1520], which only increased the zeal and indignation of the preacher. In a book he published, called the *Babylonish Captivity*, he applied all the scriptural attributes of the whore of Babylon to the papal hierarchy, and attacked with equal force and virulence the doctrines of transubstantiation, purgatory, the celibacy of the priests, and the refusal of wine in the communion to the people. The book being condemned to the flames, Luther took upon him to burn the pope's bull and the decretals at Wittenburg, 1520.

2. One of the first champions who took up the pen against Luther was Henry VIII. of England, whose book, presented to pope Leo, procured him the title now annexed to his crown of defender of the faith. The rest of Europe seemed to pay little attention to these rising controversies. Charles V., studious of the friendship of the pope, took part against Luther, and summoned him to answer for his doctrines in the diet of Worms. The reformer defended himself with great spirit, and aided by his friend the elector, made a safe escape into Saxony, where the mass was now universally abolished, the images destroyed, and the convents shut up. The friars and nuns returned to the world, and Luther took a nun for his wife. Nor did these secularized priests abuse their new freedom, for their manners were decent, and their life exemplary.

3. Erasmus has justly censured the impolicy of the catholic clergy in their modes of resisting and suppressing the new doctrines. They allowed them to be discussed in sermons before the people, and employed for that purpose furious and bigoted declaimers, who only increased and widened differences. They would not yield in the most insignificant trifle, nor acknowledge a single fault; and they persecuted with the utmost cruelty all whose opinions were not agreeable to their own standard of faith. How wise is the counsel of Lord Bacon! "There is no better way to stop the rise of new sects and schisms, than to re-

form abuses, compound the lesser differences, proceed mildly from the first, refrain from sanguinary persecutions, and rather to soften and win the principal leaders, by gracing and advancing them, than to enrage them by violence and bitterness." (*Bac. Mor. Ess.* sect. i. ess. 12.)

4. Switzerland followed in the path of reformation. Ulric Zuingle at [Linsiedeln, afterwards at] Zurich, preached forth the new tenets with such zeal and effect, that the whole canton were his converts, and the senate publicly abolished the mass, and purified the churches. Berne took the same measures with yet greater solemnity, after a discussion in the senate which lasted two months. Basle imitated the same example. Others of the cantons armed in defence of their faith; and in a desperate engagement, in which the protestants were defeated, Zuingle was slain, 1531.

5. Lutheranism was now making its progress towards the north of Europe. Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were at this time governed by Christiern II., the Nero of the north. The Swedes, reluctantly submitting to the yoke, were kept in awe by Troll, archbishop of Upsal, a faithful minister of the tyrant in all his schemes of oppression and cruelty. On intelligence of a revolt, the king and his primate, armed with a bull from pope Leo X., massacred the whole body of the nobles and senators, amidst the festivity of a banquet. Gustavus Vasa, grand-nephew of Charles Canutson, formerly king of Sweden, escaped from this carnage, and concealed himself in the mines of Dalecarlia. By degrees assembling a small army, he defeated the generals of Christiern, whose cruelties at length determined the united nations to vindicate their rights, by a solemn sentence of deposition. The tyrant fled to Flanders, and Frederic, duke of Holstein, was elected sovereign of the three kingdoms, though Sweden, adhering to her heroic deliverer, and the heir of her ancient kings, acknowledged alone the sovereignty of Gustavus Vasa, 1521. The bull of Leo X., and its bloody consequences, were sufficient to convert Sweden and Denmark to the tenets of the reformed religion. Gustavus enjoyed his sceptre many years in peace, and contributed greatly to the happiness and prosperity of his kingdom.

6. As early as 1525, the States of Saxony, Brunswick, Hesse Cassel, and the cities of Strasburgh and Frankfort, had embraced the doctrines of the Reformation. Luther

had now a species of spiritual control, which he exercised by the medium of a synod of six reformers. His successful example gave rise to reformers of different kinds, whose doctrines were less consonant to reason or good policy. Two fanatics of Saxony, Storck and Muncer, condemned infant baptism (hence termed Anabaptists). They preached up universal equality and freedom of religious opinion, but, with singular inconsistency, attempted to propagate their doctrines by the sword. They were defeated at Mulhausen, and Muncer died on a scaffold; but the party seemed to acquire new courage. They surprised Munster, expelled the bishop, and anointed for their king a tailor named Jack of Leyden, who defended the city with the most desperate courage, but fell at length with his party under the superior force of regular troops. The Anabaptists, thus sanguinary in their original tenets and practices, have long ago become peaceable and harmless subjects.

7. The united power of the pope and emperor found it impossible to check the progress of the Reformation. The diet of Spires proposed articles of accommodation between the Lutherans and catholics. Fourteen cities of Germany, and several of the electors, protested formally against those articles; and hence the Lutheran party acquired the name of protestants. They presented to the assembly at Augsburg a confession of their faith, which is the standard of the protestant doctrines. [1529.]

8. The virtuous lives and conduct of the protestant leaders, compared with those of the higher clergy among the catholics, formed a contrast very favourable to the progress of the Reformation. The solemn manner in which the states of Switzerland, and particularly Geneva, had proceeded, in calmly discussing every point of controversy, and yielding only to the force of rational conviction, attracted the respect of all Europe. John Calvin, a Frenchman, becoming a zealous convert to the new doctrines [1532], was the first who gave them a systematic form, by his *Institutions*, and enforced their authority by the establishment of synods, consistories, and deacons. The magistracy of Geneva gave these ordinances the authority of the law; and they were adopted by six of the Swiss cantons, by the protestants of France, and the presbyterians of Scotland and England. The ablest advocates of Calvin will find it difficult to vindicate him from the charge of intolerance and the spirit of persecution; but

these, which are the vices or defects of the individual, attach not in the least to the doctrines of the Reformation, which are subject to the test of reason, and can derive no blemish or dishonour from the men who propagated them, or even the motives which might influence some of their earliest supporters. This observation applies more particularly to the subject of the ensuing section.

XL.—Of the Reformation in England under Henry VIII. and his Successors.

1. Wickliffe, in the middle of the 14th century, by an attack on the doctrines of transubstantiation, indulgences, and auricular confession, and yet more by translation of the scriptures into the vernacular tongue, had prepared the minds of the people of England for a revolution in religious opinions; but his professed followers were not numerous. The intemperate passions of Henry VIII. were the immediate cause of the Reformation in England. He had been married for 18 years to Catherine of Spain, aunt of Charles V., by whom he had three children, one of them Mary, afterwards queen of England; when falling in love with Anna Bullen, he solicited Clement VII. for a divorce from Catharine, on the score of her former marriage to his elder brother Arthur. The pope found himself in the painful dilemma of either affronting the emperor, or mortally offending the king of England. In hope that the king's passion might cool, he spun off the time by preliminaries and negotiations, but to no purpose. Henry was resolutely bent on accomplishing his wishes. The Sorbonne and other French Universities gave an opinion in his favour; and armed with this sanction he caused Cranmer archbishop of Canterbury to annul his marriage. The repudiated queen gave place to Anna Bullen. On this occasion Wolsey, the minister of Henry, lost the favour of his master, by opposing, as was believed, his darling measure.

2. Clement VII., from this specimen of the wayward temper of Henry, resolved to keep well with the emperor, and issued his bull, condemnatory of the sentence of the archbishop of Canterbury. Henry immediately proclaimed himself head of the church of England; the parliament ratified his title, and the pope's authority was instantly suppressed in all his dominions, 1534. He proceeded to abolish the monasteries, and confiscate their

treasures and revenues, erecting out of the latter six new bishoprics and a college. The immoralities of the monks were sedulously exposed, the forgery of relics, false miracles, &c. held up to the popular scorn.

3. Yet Henry, though a reformer, and pope in his own kingdom, had not renounced the religion of Rome; he was equally an enemy to the tenets of Luther and Calvin and to the pope's jurisdiction in England. Inconstant in his affections, and a stranger to all humanity, he removed Anna Bullen from the throne to the scaffold, to gratify a new passion for Jane Seymour, a maid of honour, who happily died about a year after. To her succeeded Anne of Cleves, whom he divorced in nine months, to make way for Catherine Howard. She underwent the same fate as Anna Bullen, on a similar suspicion of infidelity to his bed. His sixth wife, Catharine Parr, with difficulty retained her hazardous elevation, but had the good fortune to survive the tyrant.

4. On the death of Henry VIII., 1547, and the accession of his son Edward VI., the protestant religion prevailed in England, and was favoured by the sovereign; but he died at the early age of 15, 1553; and the sceptre passed to the hands of his sister Mary, an intolerant catholic, and most cruel persecutor of the protestants. In her reign, which was but of five years' duration, above 800 miserable victims were burnt at the stake, martyrs to their religious opinions. Mary inherited a congenial spirit with her husband, Philip II. of Spain, whose intolerance cost him the loss of a third part of his dominions.

5. Mary was succeeded (1558) by her sister Elizabeth, the daughter of Anna Bullen, a protestant, and the more zealous from an abhorrence of the character of her predecessor. In her reign the religion of England became stationary. The hierarchy was established in its present form, by archbishops, bishops, priests, and deacons, the king being by law the head of the church. The liturgy had been settled in the reign of Edward VI. The canons are agreeable chiefly to the Lutheran tenets.

Of the Reformation in Scotland we shall afterwards treat under a separate section.

XLI.—*Of the Discovery and Conquest of America.*

1. Among those great events which distinguished the age of Charles V., was the conquest of Mexico by Ferdi-

nando Cortez, and of Peru by the Pizarros. The discovery of America had preceded the first of these events about 27 years ; but we have postponed the mention of it till now, that the whole may be shortly treated in connexion.

Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, a man of enterprising spirit, having in vain solicited encouragement from his native state, from Portugal, and from England, to attempt discoveries in the western seas, applied to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain, who furnished him with three small ships, 90 men, and a few thousand ducats for the charges of his voyage. After 33 days' sail from the Canaries, he discovered San Salvador, and soon after the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola [better known as St. Domingo] ; whence returning, accompanied with some of the natives, some presents in gold, and curiosities of the country, he was treated by the Spaniards with the highest honours, and soon supplied with a suitable armament for the prosecution of his discoveries. In his second voyage he discovered the Caribbees and Jamaica. In a third voyage he descried the continent of America, within ten degrees of the line, towards the isthmus of Panama. To this continent [a Florentine merchant] the geographer Americus, who, five years after, followed the footsteps of Columbus, had the undeserved honour of giving his name. [He made several voyages to the New World after 1497, and made charts and maps of his discoveries].

2. The inhabitants of America and its islands were a race of men quite new to the Europeans. They are of the colour of copper, and have no beard. In some quarters, as in Mexico and Peru, the Spaniards found a flourishing empire, and a people polished, refined, and luxurious. In others, man was a naked savage, the member of a wandering tribe, whose sole occupation was hunting or war. The savages of the continent were characterized alike by their cruelty to their enemies, their contempt of death, and their generous affection for their friends. The inhabitants of the islands were a milder race, of gentler manners, and less hardy conformation of body and mind. The larger animals, as the horse, the cow, were unknown in America.

3. To the inhabitants of those new discovered countries, which were believed to contain inexhaustible treasures, the Spaniards, under the pretence of religion and policy, conducted themselves with the most shocking inhumanity

The rack, the scourge, the fagot, were employed to convert them to Christianity. They were hunted down like wild beasts, or burnt alive in their thickets and fastnesses. Hispaniola, [or St. Domingo] containing 3,000,000 of inhabitants, and Cuba, containing above 600,000, were, in a few years, absolutely depopulated. It was now resolved to explore the continent; and Ferdinando Cortez with 11 ships and 617 men, sailed for that purpose from Cuba in 1519. Landing at Tabasco, he advanced, though with a brave opposition from the natives, into the heart of the country. The state of Tlascala, after ineffectual resistance, became the ally of the Spaniards; and, on their approach to Mexico, the terror of their name had paved the way for an easy conquest.

4. The Mexican empire, though founded little more than a century before this period, had arisen to great splendour. Its sovereign, Montezuma, received the invaders with the deference due to superior beings. But a short acquaintance opened the eyes of the Mexicans; and finding nothing in the Spaniards beyond what was human, they were daring enough to attack, and put to death a few of them. The intrepid Cortez immediately marched to the place with 50 men, and putting the emperor in irons, carried him off prisoner to his camp. The astonished Mexicans submitted to every term, and agreed to redeem their sovereign by the surrender of all the imperial treasures.

5. Velasquez, governor of Cuba, jealous of Cortez, attempted to supersede him, by dispatching a superior army to the continent; but the latter defeating his troops, compelled them to join his own banners. In an attack by the Mexicans for the rescue of their sovereign, Montezuma having offered to mediate between the Mexicans and their enemies, was indignantly put to death by one of his own subjects. The whole empire, under its new sovereign, Guatimozin, was now armed against the Spaniards; and while the plains were covered with their archers and spearmen, the lake of Mexico was filled with armed canoes. To oppose the latter, the Spaniards built a few vessels under the walls of their city, and soon evinced their superiority on both elements to their feeble foe. The monarch was taken prisoner by the officers of Cortez, and refusing to discover his treasures, was stretched naked on burning coals. Soon after, on the discovery of a conspi-

racy against the Spaniards, the wretched Guatimozin, with all the princes of his blood, were executed on a gibbet. This was the last blow to the power of the Mexicans, and Cortez was now absolute master of the whole empire, 1527.

6. In the same year, 1527, Diego D'Almagro, and Francis Pizarro, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces of cannon, landed in Peru, a large and flourishing empire, governed by an ancient race of monarchs, named Incas. The Inca Atabalipa receiving the Spaniards with reverence, they immediately required him to embrace the Christian faith, and surrender all his dominions to the emperor Charles V., who had obtained a gift of them from the pope. The proposal being misunderstood, or received with hesitation, Pizarro seized the monarch as his prisoner, while his troops massacred 5,000 of the Peruvians on the spot. The empire was now plundered of prodigious treasures in gold and precious stones; but Atabalipa, being suspected of concealing a part from his insatiable invaders, was solemnly tried as a criminal, and strangled at a stake. [1533.]

7. The courage of the Spaniards surpassed even their inhumanity. D'Almagro marched 500 leagues, through continual opposition, to Cusco, and penetrated across the Cordilleras into Chili, two degrees beyond the southern tropic. He was slain in a civil war between him and his associate Francis Pizarro, who was soon after assassinated by the party of his rival. At this time the Spaniards discovered the inexhaustible silver mines of Potosi, which they compelled the Peruvians to work for their advantage. They are now wrought by the negroes of Africa. The native Peruvians, who are a weakly race of men, were soon almost exterminated by cruelty and intolerable labour. The humane bishop of Chiapa remonstrated with success to Charles V. on this subject, and the residue of this miserable people have been since treated with more indulgence.

8. The Spanish acquisitions in America belonged to the crown, and not to the state; they were the absolute property of the sovereign, and regulated solely by his will. They were governed by the three viceroys of Mexico, Peru, and Terra Firma, who exercised supreme civil and military authority over their provinces.* There were 11 courts of

* After a long series of popular dissensions and tumults, which first broke forth in 1808, the royalists were compelled to evacuate Mexico, and

audience for the administration of justice, with whose judicial proceedings the viceroys could not interfere; and their judgments were subject to appeal to the royal council of the Indies, whose jurisdiction extended to every department, ecclesiastical, civil, military, and commercial. A tribunal in Spain, called *Casa de la Contratacion*, regulated the departure of the fleets, and their destination and equipment, under the control of the council of the Indies.

9. The gold and silver of Spanish America, though the exclusive property of the crown of Spain, has by means of wars, marriages of princes, and extension of commerce, come into general circulation, and has greatly increased the quantity of specie, and diminished the value of money over all Europe.

XLII.—*Possessions of the other European Nations in America.*

1. The example of the Spaniards excited a desire in the other nations of Europe to participate with them in the riches of the new world. The French, in 1557, attempted to form a settlement on the coast of Brazil, where the Portuguese had already established themselves from the beginning of the century. The colony was divided by faction, and was soon utterly destroyed by the Portuguese. It is one of the richest of the American settlements, both from the produce of its soil, and its mines of gold and precious stones.

2. The Spaniards were in possession of Florida, when the French attempted to colonise it in 1564, but without success. The French then established a settlement in Canada, and founded Quebec in 1608; but the colony was perpetually subject to attack from the English. In 1629 the French had not a foot of territory in America. Canada has been repeatedly taken by the English, and restored by different treaties to the French; but it has now for many years been permanently a British settlement. The French drew their greatest advantages from the Islands of St. Domingo, Guadaloupe, and Martinico. From their continental possessions of Louisiana, and the

Spain to acknowledge its independence, 1822. Its federal government was formed and sworn to Feb. 24th 1824. From similar causes the Spanish colonies in South America have recently declared their independence. Peru and Terra Firma now form the republics of New Grenada, Venezuela, Ecuador, Peru, Bolivia, Chili, La Plata and Buenos Ayres, or the Argentine Republic, Uruguay, and Paraguay.—ED.

settlements on the Mississippi, which they have now lost, they never derived any solid benefit.

3. The Dutch have no other settlement on the continent of America than Surinam, a part of Guiana; and in the West Indies, the islands of Curaçao and St. Eustatius. The Danes possess the inconsiderable islands of St. Thomas and Santa Cruz.

4. The British have extensive settlements on the continent of America and the West India islands. England derived her right to her settlements in North America from the first discovery of the country by Sebastian Cabot in 1499, a few years after the discovery of South America by Columbus; but there were no attempts to colonise any part of the country till about a century afterwards, when Sir Walter Raleigh planted the colony of Virginia, so named in honour of his queen. Nova Scotia was planted under James I., and New England in the reign of Charles I., chiefly by the refugee puritans. New York and Pennsylvania were in the hands of the Dutch, till conquered by the English in the reign of Charles II., who granted a gift of the latter province, with a charter of privileges, to William Penn the Quaker. Maryland was colonised in the time of Charles I. by English catholics. The Carolinas were settled in the reign of Charles II. Georgia was not colonised till the reign of George II. The Floridas were ceded to Britain by Spain at the peace of 1763, [and ultimately by the British to the United States in 1819].

5. The British American colonies, under which name we include the United States, are greatly inferior in natural riches to those of the Spaniards, as they produce neither silver nor gold, indigo nor cochineal; but they are in general of fertile soil, and highly improved by industry, and they afford a most profitable market for home manufactures. The produce of the West India islands, Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Antigua, the Granadas, &c. in sugar, cotton, tobacco, &c., is of very great value to the mother country.

XLIII — Of the State of the Fine Arts in Europe in the Age of Leo X.

1. In enumerating those great objects which characterized the end of the 15th and beginning of the 16th century, we remarked the high advancement to which the fine arts attained in Europe in the age of Leo X. The

strong bent which the human mind seems to take in certain periods to one class of pursuits in preference to all others, as in that age to the fine arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture, may be in part accounted for from moral causes, such as the peaceful state of a country, the genius or taste of its sovereigns, and their liberal encouragement of those arts; the general emulation that arises where one or two artists are of confessed eminence, and the aid which they derive from the studies and works of each other. These causes have doubtless great influence, but do not seem entirely sufficient to account for the phenomenon. The operation of such causes must be slow and gradual. In the case of the fine arts, the transition from obscurity to splendour was rapid and instantaneous. From the contemptible mediocrity in which they had remained for ages, they rose at one step to the highest pitch of excellence.

2. The arts of painting and sculpture were buried in the West under the ruins of the Roman empire. They gradually declined in the latter ages, as we may perceive by the series of the coins of the lower empire. The Ostrogoths, instead of destroying, sought to preserve the monuments of taste and genius. They were even the inventors of some of the arts dependent on design, as the composition of Mosaic. But, in the middle ages, those arts were at a very low ebb in Europe. They began, however, to revive a little about the end of the 13th century. Cimabue, a Florentine [born 1240], from the sight of the paintings of some Greek artists in one of the churches, began to attempt similar performances [in oil painting], and soon excelled his models. His scholars were, Giotto, Gaddi, Tasi, Cavallini, and Stephano Florentino; and these formed an academy at Florence in 1350.

3. The works of these early painters, with some fidelity of imitation, had not a spark of grace or elegance; and such continued to be the state of the art till towards the end of the 15th century, when it arose at once to the summit of perfection. Raphael painted at first in the hard manner of his master Perugino, but soon deserted it, and struck at once into the noble, elegant, and graceful; in short the imitation of the *antique*. This change was the result of genius alone. The ancient sculptures were familiar to the early painters, but they had looked on them with cold indifference. They were now surveyed by other

eyes. Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Leonard da Vinci, were animated by the same genius that formed the Grecian Apelles, Zeuxis, Glycon, Phidias, and Praxiteles.

4. Nor was Italy alone thus distinguished. Germany, Flanders, and Switzerland, produced in the same age artists of consummate merit. Before the notice of these, we shall briefly characterize the schools of Italy.

5. First in order is the school of Florence, of which the most eminent master was Michael Angelo, born in 1474. His works are characterized by a profound knowledge of the anatomy of the human figure, perhaps chiefly formed on the contemplation of the ancient sculptures. His paintings exhibit the grand, the sublime and terrible; but he drew not from the antique its simple grace and beauty.

6. The Roman school was founded by Raphael d'Urbino, born 1483. This great painter united almost every excellence of the art. In invention, grace, majestic simplicity, forcible expression of the passions, he stands unrivalled, and far beyond all competition. He has borrowed liberally, but without servility, from the antique.

7. Of the school of Lombardy, or the Venetian, the most eminent artists were, Titian, Giorgione, Correggio, and Parmeggiano. Titian is most eminent in portrait, and in the painting of female beauty. Such is the truth of his colouring, that his figures are nature itself. It was the testimony of Michael Angelo to the merits of Titian, that, if he had studied at Rome or Florence, amidst the masterpieces of antiquity, he would have eclipsed all the painters in the world. Giorgione, with similar merits, was cut off in the flower of his youth. Titian lived to the age of 100. Correggio was superior in colouring and knowledge of light and shade, to all that have preceded or followed him. This knowledge was the result of study; in other painters those effects are frequently accidental, as we observe they are not uniform. Parmeggiano imitated the graceful manner of Raphael, but carried it to a degree of affectation.

8. Such were the three original Italian schools. The character of the Florentine is grandeur and sublimity, with great excellence of design, but a want of grace, of skill in colouring, and effect of light and shade. The character of the Roman is equal excellence of design, a grandeur tempered with moderation and simplicity, a high degree of grace and elegance, and a superior knowledge,

though not an excellence in colouring. The character of the Venetian is the perfection of colouring, and the utmost force of light and shade, with an inferiority in every other particular.

9. To the school of Raphael succeeded the second Roman school, or that of the Caraccis, three brothers, of whom Annibal was the most excellent. His scholars were Guercino, Albano, Lanfranc, Domenichino, and Guido. Of these, though all eminent painters, the first and last were the most excellent. The elegant contours of Guercino, and the strength, sweetness, and majesty of Guido, are the admiration of all true judges of painting.

10. In the same age, the Flemish school, though of a quite different character, and inferior to the Italian, shone with great lustre. Oil painting was invented by the Flemings in the 15th century; and, in that age, Heemskirk, Franse Floris, Quintin Matsys, and the German Albert Durer, were deservedly distinguished. Of the Flemish school, Rubens, though a painter of a much later age, is the chief ornament. His figures, though too corpulent, are drawn with great truth and nature, and he possesses inexhaustible invention, and great skill in the expression of the passions. Switzerland produces Hans Holbein, a painter of great eminence in portrait, and remarkable for truth of colouring. Of his works, from his residence at the court of Henry VIII., there are more specimens in Britain than those of any other foreign painter. Holland had likewise its painters, whose chief merit was the faithful representation of vulgar nature, and perfect knowledge of the mechanism of the art, the power of colours, and the effect of light and shade.

11. With the art of painting, sculpture and architecture were likewise revived in the same age, and brought to high perfection. The universal genius of Michael Angelo shone equally conspicuous in all the three departments. His statue of Bacchus was judged by Raphael to be the work of Phidias or Praxiteles. The Grecian architecture was first revived by the Florentines in the 14th century; and the cathedral of Pisa was constructed partly from the materials of an ancient Greek temple. The art arrived at high perfection in the age of Leo X., when the church of St. Peter at Rome, under the direction of Bramante, San Gallo, Raphael, and Michael Angelo, exhibited the noblest specimen of architecture in the universe.

12. The invention of the art of engraving on copper by Thomas Finiguerra, a goldsmith of Florence, is dated 1460. From Italy it travelled into Flanders, where it was first practised by Martin Schoen of Antwerp. His scholar was the celebrated Albert Durer, who engraved with excellence both on copper and on wood. Etching on copper by means of aquafortis, which gives more ease than the stroke of the graver, was discovered by Parmeggiano, who executed in that manner his own beautiful designs. No art underwent in its early stages so rapid an improvement as that of engraving. In the course of 150 years from its invention, it attained nearly to its perfection; for there has been but little proportional improvement in the last century, since the days of Audran, Poilly, and Edelink.

13. The art of engraving in mezzotinto is of much later date than the ordinary mode of engraving on copper. It was the invention of prince Rupert about 1650. It is characterised by a softness equal to that of the pencil, and a happy blending of light and shade, and is therefore peculiarly adapted to portrait, where those requisites are most essential.

14. The age of Leo X. was likewise an era of very high literary splendour; but of the distinguished writers of that period we shall afterwards treat, in a connected view of the progress of literature and the sciences during the 16th and 17th centuries.

XLIV.—*Of the Ottoman Power in the Sixteenth Century.*

1. From the period of the taking of Constantinople, in the middle of the 15th century, the Turks were a great and conquering people. In the 16th century, Selim I. after subduing Syria and Mesopotamia, undertook the conquest of Egypt, then governed by the Mamelukes, a race of Circassians, who had seized the country in 1250, and put an end to the government of the Arabian princes, the posterity of Saladin. The conquest of Egypt by Selim made little change in the form of its government. It professed to own the sovereignty of the Turks, but was in reality governed by the Mamaluke Beys.

2. Solyman (the Magnificent), son of Selim, was, like his predecessors, a great conqueror. The island of Rhodes, possessed by the knights of St. John, was a darling ob-

ject of his ambition. These knights had expelled the Saracens from the island in 1310. Solymán attacked Rhodes with 140,000 men and 400 ships. The Rhodian knights, aided by the English, Italians, and Spaniards, made a noble defence; but after a siege of many months, were forced to capitulate, and evacuate the island, 1522, which has been the property of the Turks ever since. The commercial laws of the ancient Rhodians were adopted by the Romans, and are at this day [with the laws of Oleron, the laws of Wisbuy, and other maritime laws] the foundation of the maritime jurisprudence of all the nations of Europe.

3. Solymán subdued the greatest part of Hungary, Moldavia, and Walachia, and took from the Persians Georgia and Bagdat. His son Selim II. took Cyprus from the Venetians in 1571. They applied to the pope for aid, who, together with Philip II. of Spain, entered into a triple alliance against the Ottoman power. An armament of 250 ships of war, commanded by Philip's natural brother, Don John of Austria, was opposed to 250 Turkish galleys in the gulf of Lepanto, near Corinth; and the Turks were defeated, with the loss of 150 ships, and 15,000 men, 1571. This great victory was soon after followed by the taking of Tunis by the same commander.

4. But these successes were of little consequence. The Ottoman power continued extremely formidable. Under Amurath II. the Turks made encroachments on Hungary, and subdued a part of Persia. Mahomet III., though a barbarian in his private character, supported the dignity of the empire, and extended its dominions. The Ottoman power declined from his time, and yielded to that of the Persians under Schah-Abbas the Great, who wrested from the Turks a large part of their late-acquired dominions.

XLV.—State of Persia and the other Asiatic Kingdoms in the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Centuries. •

1. The great empire of Persia, in the end of the 15th century, underwent a revolution on account of religion. Haydar, or Sophi, a religious enthusiast, established a new sect of Mahometans, which held Ali to be successor of Mahomet instead of Omar, and abolished the pilgrimages to Mecca. The Persians eagerly embraced a doctrine which distinguished them from their enemies the Turks; and Ismael, the son of Sophi, following the example of

Mahomet, enforced his opinions by the sword. He subdued all Persia and Armenia, and left this vast empire to his descendants.

2. Schah-Abbas, surnamed the Great, was the great-grandson of Ismael Sophi. He ruled his empire with despotic sway, but with most able policy. He regained the provinces which had been taken by the Turks, and drove the Portuguese from their settlement of Ormuz. He rebuilt the fallen cities of Persia, and contributed greatly to the introduction of arts and civilization. His son Schah-Sesi reigned weakly and unfortunately. In his time, Schah-Gean, the great mogul, deprived Persia of Candahar, and the Turks took Bagdat in 1638. From that period the Persian monarchy gradually declined. Its sovereigns became the most despicable slaves to their own ministers; and a revolution in the beginning of the 18th century put an end to the dynasty of the Sophis, and gave the throne to the Affghan princes, a race of Tartars.

3. The government of Persia is almost as despotic as that of Turkey. The sovereign draws a small yearly tax from every subject, and receives likewise, stated gifts on particular occasions. The crown is hereditary, with the exclusion of females; but the sons of a daughter succeed in their room. There is no other rank in Persia than that annexed to office, which is held during the monarch's pleasure. The national religion is the Mahometan, as reformed by Sophi. The sect of the Guebres preserve the religion of Zoroaster, as contained in the Zendavesta and Sadder (see *supra*, part I. sect. XI.) and keep alive the sacred fire.

4. The poetry of the Persians displays great fancy and luxuriance of imagery. The epic poet Firdousi is said to rival the various merits of Homer and Ariosto; and the writings of Sadi and Hafez, both in prose and poetry, are admired by all who are conversant in oriental literature.

5. *Tartary*.—From this vast tract of country sprang those conquerors who produced all the great revolutions in Asia. The Turks, a race of Tartars, overwhelmed the empire of the caliphs. Mahmoud, a Tartar, conquered Persia and great part of India in the 10th century. The Tartar Gengiskan subdued India, China, Persia, and Asiatic Russia, in the beginning of the 13th century. Batoukan, one of his sons, ravaged to the frontiers of Germany. Tamerlane, the scourge of the Turks, and conqueror of

a great part of Asia, was of the race of Gengiskan. Baber, great-grandson of Tamerlane, subdued all between Samarcand and Agra in the empire of the mogul. The descendants of those conquerors reign in India, Persia, and China; but Tartary itself is no more than a vast desert, inhabited by wandering tribes, who follow the life of the ancient Scythians.

6. *Thibet*.—This southern part of Tartary exhibits the phenomenon of a kingdom governed by a living god, the Dalai Lama, or Great Lama, whose divinity is acknowledged not only by his own subjects, but over China and a part of India. This god is a young man whom the priests educate and train to his function, and in whose name they in reality govern the kingdom.

XLVI.—*History of India.*

1. The earliest accounts of this great tract of civilized country, are those of Herodotus, who lived about a century before Alexander the Great; and it is remarkable that the character given of the people by that early writer corresponds perfectly with that of the modern Hindoos. He had probably taken his accounts from Scylax of Caryanda, whom Darius Hystaspes had sent to explore the country. But it was not till the age of Alexander that the Greeks had any particular knowledge of that extraordinary people. Alexander penetrated into the Punjab, where his troops refusing to proceed, he embarked on the Hydaspes, which runs into the Indus, and thence pursued his course for above 1000 miles to the ocean. The narrative given by Arrian of this expedition was taken from the mouths of Alexander's officers; and its particulars tally yet more remarkably than those of Herodotus with the modern manners of the Hindoos.

2. India was visited by Seleucus, to whose share it fell in the partition of Alexander's empire; and Antiochus the Great, 200 years afterwards, made a short expedition thither. It is probable too that some small intercourse subsisted between the Greek empire of Bactriana and India; but, till the 15th century, no European power thought of forming any establishment in that country; though, from the age of Alexander down to the period of the Portuguese discoveries, there had constantly been some commercial intercourse between Europe and India, both by sea and across the desert.

3. The Mahometans, as early as A.D. 1000, had begun to establish an empire in India. Mahmoud, a Tartar, conquered a great part of the country, and established his capital at Ghazna, near the sources of the Indus, extirpating, wherever he came, the Hindoo religion, and establishing the Mahometan in its stead. Mohammed Gori, in 1194, penetrated to Benares, and one of his successors fixed the seat of his empire at Delhi, which has continued to be the capital of the Mogul princes. The sovereignty founded by Mahmoud was overwhelmed in 1222 by Gengiskan, as was his empire in the following century by Tamerlane, whose posterity are at this day on the throne of the Mogul empire.

4. The Mogul empire was, even in the beginning of the 18th century, the most powerful and flourishing of all the Asiatic monarchies, under Aurengzebe, the son of Schah-Gean, who, though a monster of cruelty, and most despotic tyrant, enjoyed a life prolonged to 100 years, crowned with uninterrupted prosperity and success. He extended his empire over the whole peninsula of India within the Ganges.

5. The dominion of the mogul was not absolute over all the countries which composed his empire. Tamerlane allowed the petty princes, rajahs or nabobs, to retain their territories, of which their descendants are at this day in possession. They paid a tribute to the great mogul, as an acknowledgment of his sovereignty, and observed the treaties agreed to by their ancestors; but they were in other respects independent princes.

6. Bengal became a part of the mogul's empire by conquest in the end of the 16th century, and was commonly governed by a son of the great mogul, who had under him several inferior nabobs, the former princes of the country. Such was its condition when the British East India Company, between 1751 and 1760, conquered and obtained possession of that kingdom, together with Bahar and part of Orissa, a large, populous, and most flourishing country, containing above 10,000,000 of inhabitants, and producing an immense revenue; and these territories have since that period received a considerable addition. The East India Company thence has the benefit of the whole commerce of the Mogul empire, with Arabia, Persia, and Thibet, as well as with the kingdoms of

Azem, Aracan, Pegu, Siam, Malacca, China, and many of the oriental islands.*

The fixed establishments of the British in the country of Hindustan have afforded opportunity of obtaining much instructive knowledge relative to the ancient state of that country, of which we shall give a short sketch in the following section.

XLVII.—Ancient State of India ; Manners, Laws, Arts and Sciences, and Religion of the Hindoos.

1. The remains of the ancient knowledge of the Hindoos have been preserved by an hereditary priesthood, in the Sanscrit language, long since extinct, and only known to a few of the bramins. The zeal of some learned Europeans has lately opened that source of information, whence we learn the most interesting particulars of this extraordinary people, perhaps the most early cultivators of the sciences, and the instructors of all the nations of antiquity. We shall briefly notice their singular division into castes, their civil policy, their laws, their progress in the arts and sciences, and their religion.

2. The whole body of the people was divided into four orders or castes. The highest, that of the bramins, was devoted to religion and the cultivation of the sciences ; to the second belonged the preservation of the state ; they were its sovereigns and its magistrates in peace, and its soldiers in war : the third were the husbandmen and merchants : and the fourth the artisans, labourers, and servants. These are inseparable distinctions, and descend from generation to generation. Moreover, the individuals of each class follow invariably the professions of their forefathers. Every man, from his birth, knows the function allotted to him, and fulfils with ease and satisfaction the duty which he cannot avoid. Hence arises that permanence of manners and institutions which so singularly characterises this ancient nation.

3. This classification is an artificial arrangement, which could have originated only from the mind of a legislator among a polished people, completely obedient to government. It is, therefore, a proof of the highly civilized

* On the last expiration of the East India Company's charter, in 1833, the commerce with India and China was thrown open, and the company retains only the political government of Hindostan till 1853. - Ed.

state of the Hindoo nation in the most remote periods of antiquity.

4. The civil policy of the Hindoos is another proof of the same fact. At the time of Alexander the Great, India was divided into large and powerful kingdoms, governed by sovereigns whose dominion was not absolute, but controlled by the superior authority of the bramins. A system of feudalism has ever prevailed in India; the rights to lands flow from the sovereign, to whom a certain duty is payable by the class of the husbandmen, who transmit their possessions to their children under the same tenure. Strabo and Diodorus remarked among the Indians three classes of officers; one whose department was the regulation of agriculture, tanks, highways; another which superintend the police of the cities; a third which regulated the military department. The same policy prevails at this day under the Hindoo princes.

5. The jurisprudence of Hindostan is an additional proof of great antiquity and civilization. The *Ayen-Akbery*, and still more the compilation of Hindoo laws from the ancient Sanscrit records, made by order of Mr. Hastings, contain the jurisprudence of a refined and commercial people, among whom law itself had been a study and profession.

6. Many monuments exist in India of the advanced state of the useful and elegant arts in the remotest periods of antiquity. The ancient pagodas, of vast extent and magnificence, whether cut in the solid rock, as in Elephanta and Salsette, or in the open air, as at Chillambrum and Seringham, the sumptuous residences of the bramins; and the ancient hill fortresses, constructed with prodigious strength and solidity, evince a great advancement in the arts: as the resort of the most polished nations of antiquity to that country for cotton cloths, fine linen, and works in metal and in ivory, proves the superior state of those manufactures to all known at this time in Europe.

7. The late translations from the Sanscrit, of several ingenious compositions of high antiquity, as the dramatic piece *Sacantala*, the *Hitopadesu*, a series of moral apoloques and fables, the *Mahabarat*, an epic poem, composed above 2000 years before the Christian era, all concur in proof of a similar advancement in literature; and we have reason to believe, from such works as are of a philo-

osophical nature, that there is scarce a tenet of the Greek philosophy that has not been antecedently the subject of discussion among the bramins of India.

8. The numeral ciphers, first introduced into Europe by the Arabians, were, as confessed by those authors themselves, borrowed from the Indians.* It is above a century since the French philosophers evinced, by the evidence of a Siamese manuscript, containing tables for calculating the places of the heavenly bodies, the astonishing advancement made by this ancient people in the science of astronomy. A set of tables, obtained lately from the bramins by M. Gentel, goes back to an era, termed *Calyougham*, commencing 3102 years before the birth of Christ. These tables are used by the modern bramins, who are quite ignorant of the principles on which they have been constructed, and which M. Bailly has shown to be the same employed by the moderns, but with which the Greeks and Chaldeans were utterly unacquainted.

9. Lastly, from the religious opinions and worship of the Hindoos, we must draw the same conclusion as from all the preceding facts. One uniform system of superstition pervades every religion of India, which is supported by the most sagacious policy, and every thing that can excite the veneration of its votaries. The bramins, elevated above every other class of men, and exclusively acquainted with the mysteries of that religion, which it is held impious for any other class to attempt to penetrate; the implicit reliance on the authority of these bramins; the ceremonies of their worship, fitted to impress the imagination, and affect the passions; all concurred to fortify this potent superstition, and to give its priests a supreme ascendancy over the minds of the people. But those priests themselves, enlightened as they were, rejected that false theology. Their writings demonstrate that they entertained the most rational and elevated conceptions with regard to the Supreme Being, and the support of the universe.

10 On the whole, there is a high probability that India was the great school from which the most early polished nations of Europe derived their knowledge of the arts, of sciences, and of literature.

* The earliest instance of Arabic numerals being used in England is in the year 1282; they do not appear to have been in common use for the purposes of accounts till the end of the 16th century, and even then not very frequently.—ED.

XLVIII.—*Of China and Japan.*

1. Proceeding eastward in the survey of the Asiatic continent, the great empire of China next solicits our attention. In the end of the 10th century, China, Persia, and the greatest part of India, were ruled by the Tartar descendants of Gengiskan. The Tartar family of Yven, who conquered China, made no change in its laws and system of government, which had been permanent from time immemorial. Of this family there reigned nine successive monarchs, without any attempt by the Chinese to throw off the Tartar yoke. The odious and contemptible character of the last of these sovereigns at length excited a rebellion, which, in 1357, drove the Tartars from the throne; and the Chinese for 276 years, obeyed their native princes. At that period, a second revolution gave the throne once more to the Tartars. Taking advantage of an insurrection in one of the provinces, they invaded China in 1611, and made an easy conquest. The emperor shut himself up in his palace, and, after putting to death all his family, finished the scene by hanging himself. The same Tartars occupy the throne of China at this day, and observe the same wise policy of maintaining inviolate the Chinese laws, policy, and manners. Of these we shall give a brief account in the subsequent section.

2. The empire of Japan was discovered by the Portuguese about the middle of the 16th century. The open and unsuspecting character of this industrious and polished people, led them to encourage the resort of foreigners to their ports; and the Spaniards, after they had obtained the sovereignty of Portugal, carried on a most beneficial trade to the coasts of Japan. The emperor zealously promoted this intercourse, till the insatiable ambition of the Spaniards gave him alarming conviction of its danger. Under the pretence of converting the Japanese from idolatry, a vast number of priests were sent into the country, and one half of the people were speedily set at mortal variance with the other. It now became necessary to prohibit this work of conversion by an imperial edict. Still, however a free trade was allowed, till 1637, when a conspiracy of the Spaniards was discovered for dethroning the emperor, and seizing the government. An edict was issued for the expulsion of all the Spaniards and Portuguese, who were mad enough to resist, till overpowered

by force of arms. Since that period all the European nations have been excluded from the ports of Japan. The Dutch only, who had been the discoverers of the conspiracy of the Spaniards, are allowed the privilege of landing on one of the small islands, for the purposes of trade, after making oath that they are not of the Portuguese religion.

*XI.IX.—Of the Antiquity of the Empire of China.—
State of the Arts and Sciences, Manners, Government,
Laws.*

1. The antiquity of this vast empire, and the state of its government, laws, manners, and attainment in the arts and sciences, have furnished a most ample field of controversy. Voltaire, Raynal, and other writers of similar principles, have, for the purpose of discrediting the scriptural account of the origin of mankind, and the received notions of the age of the universe, given to the Chinese empire an immense antiquity, and a character of such high civilization and knowledge of the sciences and arts at that remote period, as to be utterly irreconcilable with the state and progress of man, as described in the books of Moses. On the other hand, it is probable that the desire of invalidating those opinions has induced other writers of ability to go to an opposite extreme; to undervalue this singular people, and to give too little weight to any accounts which we have, either of the duration of their empire, the economy of their government and police, or of their attainments in the arts and sciences. Amidst this contrariety of sentiments, we shall endeavour to form such an opinion as appears most consonant to the truth.

2. The panegyrists of the Chinese assert that their empire has subsisted above 4,000 years, without any material alteration in its laws, manners, language, or even fashion of dress; in evidence of which they appeal to a series of eclipses, marking contemporary events, all accurately calculated, for 2155 years before the birth of Christ. As it is easy to calculate eclipses backwards from the present day to any given period of time, it is thus possible to give to a history, fictitious from beginning to end, its chronology of real eclipses. This proof, therefore, amounts to nothing, unless it were likewise proved that all those eclipses were actually recorded at the time when they happened; but this neither has been nor can be done; for it is an allowed fact that there are no regular historical re-

cords beyond the third century before the Christian era. The present Chinese are utterly ignorant of the motions of the celestial bodies, and cannot calculate eclipses. The series mentioned has therefore in all probability been calculated by some of the Jesuits, to ingratiate themselves with the emperors, and flatter the national vanity. The Jesuits have presided in the tribunal of mathematics for above 200 years.

3. But if the authentic annals of this empire go back even to the third century before Christ, and record at that time a high state of civilization, we must allow that the Chinese are an ancient and early polished people, and that they have possessed a singular constancy in their government, laws, and manners. Sir William Jones, no bigotted encomiast of this people, allows their great antiquity and early civilization, and, with much apparent probability, traces their origin from the Hindoos. He appeals to the ancient Sanscrit records, which mention a migration from India of certain of the military class termed *Chinas* to the countries east from Bengal. The stationary condition of the arts and sciences in China proves that these have not originated with that people; and many peculiarities of the manners, institutions, and popular religion of the Chinese have a near affinity with those of the Hindoos.

4. The government of China is that of an absolute monarchy. The patriarchal system pervades the whole, and binds all the members of this vast empire in the strictest subordination. Every father is absolute in his family, and may inflict any punishment short of death upon his children. The mandarin of the district is absolute, with the power of life and death over all its members; but a capital sentence cannot be inflicted without the emperor's approbation. The emperor's power is absolute over all the mandarins, and every subject of the empire. To reconcile the people to this despotic authority, the sovereign alone is entitled to relieve the wants of the poor, and to compensate public calamities, as well as the misfortunes of individuals. He is therefore regarded as the father of his people, and even adored as a benevolent divinity.

5. Another circumstance which conciliates the people to their government is, that all honours in China are conferred according to merit, and that chiefly literary. The civil mandarins, who are the magistrates and judges, are appointed to office according to their measure of knowledge

and mental endowments. No office or rank is hereditary, but may be aspired to by the meanest of the people. The penal laws of China are remarkably severe, but their execution may be remitted by the emperor. The judicial tribunals are regulated by a body of written laws of great antiquity, and founded on the basis of universal justice and equity. The emperor's opinion rarely differs from the sentences of those courts. One tribunal judges of the qualifications of the mandarins; another regulates the morals of the people, and the national manners; a third is the tribunal of censors, which reviews the laws, the conduct of the magistrates and judges, and even that of the emperor himself. These tribunals are filled by an equal number of Chinese and Tartars.

6. It has been observed, that the sciences have been stationary in this empire for many ages; and they are at this day extremely low, though far beyond the attainments of a barbarous people. The language of China seems to oppose the prosecution of speculative researches. It has no regular inflexions, and can with difficulty express abstract ideas. We have remarked the ignorance of the Chinese in mathematics and astronomy. Of physics they have no acquaintance beyond the knowledge of apparent facts. They never ascend to principles or form theories. Their knowledge of medicine is extremely limited, and is blended with the most contemptible superstition. Of anatomy they know next to nothing; and in surgery they have never ventured to amputate a limb, or to reduce a fracture.

7. The state of the useful and elegant arts has been equally stationary with that of the sciences. They have attained many ages ago to a certain point of advancement, which they have never gone beyond. The Chinese are said to have manufactured glass for 2000 years, yet at this day it is inferior in transparency to the European, and is not used in their windows. Gunpowder they are reported to have known from time immemorial, but they never employed it in artillery or fire-arms till taught by the Europeans. Printing they are said to have invented in the age of Julius Cæsar; yet they know not the use of moveable types, but print from blocks of wood. When first shown the use of the compass in sailing, they affirmed that they were well acquainted with it, but found no occasion to employ it. The art of painting in China is mere

mechanical imitation, without grace, expression, or even accuracy of proportions. Of the rules of perspective they have not the smallest idea. In sculpture, as in the figures of their idols, the Chinese artists seem to delight in distortion and deformity. Their music is not regulated by any principles of science: they have no semi-tones; and their instruments are imperfect and untunable. The Chinese architecture has variety, lightness, and sometimes elegance, but has no grandeur or symmetrical beauty.

8. Yet, in some of the arts, the Chinese have attained to great perfection. Agriculture is carried in China to the highest pitch of improvement. There is not a spot of waste land in the whole empire, nor any which is not highly cultivated. The emperor himself is the chief of the husbandmen, and annually holds the plough with his own hands. Hence, and from the mode of economising food, is supported the astonishing population of 333,000,000 or 260 inhabitants to every square mile of the empire. The gardening of the Chinese, and their admirable embellishment of rural nature, have of late been the object of imitation in Europe, but with far inferior success. The manufacture of porcelain is an original invention of this people; and the Europeans, though excelling them in the form and ornament of the utensils, have never been able to attain to the excellence of the material.

9. The morals of the Chinese have furnished much subject both of encomium and censure. The books of Confucius are said to contain a most admirable system of morality; but the principles of morals have their foundation in human nature, and must in theory be every where the same. The moral virtues of a people are not to be estimated from the books of their philosophers. It is probable that the manners of the superior classes are in China as elsewhere, much influenced by education and example. The morals of the lower classes are said to be beyond measure loose, and their practices most dishonest; nor are they regulated by any principle but selfish interest, or restrained but by the fear of punishment.

10. The religion of the Chinese is different in the different ranks of society. There is no religion of the state. The emperor and the higher mandarins profess the belief of one Supreme Being, *Cahngti*, whom they worship by prayer and thanksgiving, without any mixture of idolatrous practices. They respect the Lama of Thibet as the

high-priest or prophet of this religion. A prevalent sect is that of *Tao-sse*, who believe in the power of magic, the agency of spirits, and the divining of future events. A third is the sect of *Fo*, derived from India, whose priests are the Bonzes, and whose fundamental doctrine is, that all things rose out of nothing, and finally must return to it; that all animals are first to undergo a series of transmigrations; and that as man's chief happiness is to approach as near as possible to a state of annihilation in this life, absolute idleness is more laudable than occupation of any kind. A variety of hideous idols are worshipped by this sect.

11. The Chinese have their sacred books, termed *Kings*; as the *Yking*, *Chouking*, &c.; which, amidst some good moral precepts, contain much mystery, childish superstition, and absurdity. These are chiefly resorted to for the divining of future events, which seems the *ultinatum* of research among the Chinese philosophers. The observation of the heavenly bodies is made for that purpose alone: the changes of weather, the performance or omission of certain ceremonies, the occurrence of certain events in particular times and places, are all believed to have their influence on futurity, and are therefore carefully observed and recorded; and the rules by which those omens are interpreted are said to have been prescribed by the great Confucius, the father of the Chinese philosophy 500 years before the Christian era.

12. We conclude, on the whole, that the Chinese are a very remarkable people; that their government, laws, policy, and knowledge of the arts and sciences, exhibit unquestionable proofs of great antiquity and early civilization, but that the extraordinary measure of duration assigned to their empire by some modern writers rests on no solid proofs; nor are their government, laws, manners, arts, or scientific attainments, at all deserving of that superlative and most exaggerated encomium which has been bestowed on them.

L.—*M. Bailly's Theory of the Origin of the Sciences among the Nations of Asia.*

1. The striking resemblance in many points of character between the Chinese and ancient Egyptians has led to the conjecture, either that they were originally the same people, the one being a colony of the other, or that the

two nations have had, at some remote period, such intercourse, either by conquest or in the way of commerce, as to occasion a reciprocal communication of manners, arts, and knowledge of the sciences. M. de Mairan has remarked the following points of similarity. The Egyptians and Chinese had the same permanence of manners, and abhorrence of innovations; they were alike remarkable for the respect entertained by children to their parents; they were equally averse to war; they had the same general but superficial knowledge in the arts and sciences, without the ability to make great attainments; they both in the most ancient times, used hieroglyphics; the Egyptians had a solemn festival, called the *Feast of the Lights*, the Chinese have the *Feast of the Lanterns*; the features of the Chinese are said to resemble the ancient Egyptian statues; certain characters engraven on an Egyptian bust of Isis were found to belong to the Chinese language.

2. M. Bailly has taken a wider range of observation, and has, from a review of the manners, customs, opinions, and attainments of the Indians, Persians, Chinese, Chaldeans, and Egyptians, discovered many circumstances of similarity between all those nations equally remarkable with the foregoing. He has thence formed the singular hypothesis, that the knowledge common to the whole of those nations has been derived from the same original source, namely, a most ancient and highly cultivated people of Asia, of whose memory every trace is now extinct, but who have been the parent instructors of all around them. If we find, says he, in the scattered huts of peasants, fragments interspersed of sculptured columns, we conclude for certain that these are not the works of the rude peasants who reared those huts, but that they are the remains of a magnificent building, the work of able architects, though we discover no other traces of the existence of that building, and cannot ascertain its precise situation.

3. The sciences and arts of the Chinese have been stationary for 2000 years. The people seem never to have availed themselves of the lights of their ancestors. They are like the inhabitants of a country recently discovered by a polished people, who have taught them some of their arts, and left their instruments among them. The knowledge they possess seems to have been imported, and not of original growth, for it has never been progressive.

4. The Chaldeans were an enlightened people at the

commencement of the Babylonish empire, 2000 years before the Christian era. They were great astronomers, and understood the revolutions of comets, which became known to the moderns only in the 16th century. The Chaldeans were probably the remains of this ancient people. The bramins of India believe in the unity of God, and the immortality of the soul, but with these sublime tenets they intermix the most childish absurdities. They derived the former from wise instructors, the latter were the fruit of their own ignorance. The Sanscrit, a most copious and elegant language, and the vehicle of all the Indian knowledge and philosophy, has been a dead tongue for thousands of years, and is intelligible only to a few of those bramins. It was probably the language of that great ancient people.

5. The coincidence or similarity of customs concurs to establish the same idea. The custom of libation was common to the Tartars and Chinese, as well as to the Greeks and Romans. All the Asiatic nations had festivals of the nature of the Roman *Saturnalia*. The tradition of the deluge is diffused among all those nations: the tradition of the giants attacking heaven is equally general. The doctrine of the metempsychosis was common to the Egyptians, Greeks, Indians, Persians, Tartarians, and Chinese. The religion of all these nations is founded on the profound, though erroneous, doctrine of the two principles, an universal soul pervading all nature, and inert matter on which it acts. A conformity in a true doctrine is no proof of mutual communication or concert; but it is ingeniously remarked, that a conformity in a false doctrine comes very near to such a proof.

6 The Egyptians, Chaldeans, Indians, Persians, and Chinese, all placed their temples fronting the East, to receive the first rays of the sun. The worship of the sun has been the religion of that ancient people. All the above-mentioned nations had a cycle, or period of 60 years, for regulating their chronology; they all divided the circle into 360 degrees, the zodiac into twelve signs, and the week into seven days; and the Chinese, Indians, and Egyptians designated those days by the names of the planets ranged in the same order. The long measure of the ancient nations had all one common origin.

7. These singular coincidences, argues M. Bailly, can be accounted for only by three suppositions: 1st, that

there was a free communication between all those ancient nations: 2ndly, That those circumstances of coincidence are so founded in human nature, that the most unconnected nations could not fail to hit upon them: or, 3rdly, That they have been all derived from a common source. He rejects the two former suppositions, as contrary, in his opinion, to fact, and rests of course upon the last.

8. The precise situation of this great ancient people, M. Bailly does not pretend to fix with certainty; but he offers probable reasons for conjecturing that it was about the 49th or 50th degree of north latitude, in the southern regions of Siberia. Many of the European and Asiatic nations attribute their origin to that quarter, which thence appears to have been extremely populous. Nitre, a production from animal substances, is more abundant there than in any other region. The observations of the rising of the stars, collected by Ptolemy, must have been made in a climate where the longest day was sixteen hours, which corresponds to the latitude mentioned. No European nation in that latitude understood astronomy in those early periods. The veneration of the Indians and Chinese for the Lama of Thibet is a proof that the religion of those nations originated in that quarter.

9. But does that region exhibit any traces of having been ever inhabited by a polished people? It is here that the theory of M. Bailly seems to be least supported by proof. He observes, that ancient mines have been discovered in those parts of Siberia, which have been wrought to great extent in a period beyond all record or tradition; that ancient sepulchres have been found, in which there were ornaments of gold of skillful workmanship; but the facts specified are so few as to warrant no positive inference.

10. This theory is an amusing specimen of the author's ingenuity; but it has not the force to draw our assent to his conclusions. We have noticed it, as specifying many curious facts relative to the manners and attainments of the ancient nations, and as furnishing strong evidence of the common origin of mankind. The nations above mentioned, though many of them remote from each other, were all connected as links of a chain, by proximity; whence it is easy to conceive that knowledge should diverge from a centre to a very distant circumference. M. Bailly has given no reasonable grounds for fixing that centre in the position he has assigned it.

II.—Reign of Philip II. of Spain.—Revolution of the Netherlands, and Establishment of the Republic of Holland.

1. After a short survey of the Asiatic kingdoms, we return to the history of Europe in the 16th century.

In the time of Philip II., the successor of Charles V., the balance of power in Europe was sustained by Spain, France, England, and Germany, all at this time highly flourishing and respectable, either from the talents of their sovereigns, or their internal strength. Elizabeth, Henry IV. and Philip II. were all acute and able politicians, though the policy of the last partook more of selfish craft, and had less of the manly and heroic, than that of either of his rival monarchs. Philip was at this time the sovereign of Spain, the Two Sicilies, Milan, and the Netherlands. He had likewise, for a few years, the power of England at his command by his marriage with Mary, the elder sister and predecessor of Elizabeth.

2. Pope Paul IV., jealous of the power of Philip, formed an alliance with Henry II. of France, to deprive the Spaniards of Milan and the Sicilies. Philip, with the aid of the English, defeated the French at St. Quintin, in Picardy, and hoped, from this signal victory, to force the allies into a peace; but the duke of Guise recovered the spirits of the French by the taking of Calais from the English, which they had now possessed for 200 years. Another great victory, however, obtained by Philip, near Gravelines, brought on the treaty of Château-Cambresis, in 1559, by which the French surrendered to Spain no less than 89 fortified towns in the Low Countries and in Italy.

3. Philip, now at ease from foreign disturbances, began to be disquieted on the score of religion. An intolerant bigot by nature, he resolved to extirpate every species of heresy from his dominions. The Netherlands, an assemblage of separate states, were all subject to Philip, under various titles; and he had conferred the government of Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Utrecht, on William, prince of Orange, a count of the German empire. The Lutheran and Calvinistic opinions had made great progress in those quarters; and Philip, determining to repress them, established the Inquisition with plenary powers, created new bishops, and prepared to abrogate the ancient laws, and give the provinces a new political institution. These

innovations, creating alarm and tumult, the duke of Alva was sent into Flanders to enforce implicit submission.

4. The Inquisition began its bloody work, and many of the principal nobility of the provinces were its victims. The minds of the people were completely alienated, and a chief was only wanting to give union to their measures. The prince of Orange, who was himself under sentence of the Inquisition, found no difficulty in raising an army, and having easily reduced some of the most important garrisons, he was proclaimed Stadtholder of Holland and Zeeland in 1570. Eighteen thousand persons perished by the hands of the executioner in the course of the duke of Alva's government, which was of five year's duration. His place was supplied by Zunega Requesens, [Dec. 1573,] a man of humanity, but bound to obey his inhuman master, who, on the death of Requesens, sent his brother, Don John of Austria, to endeavour to regain the revolted states; but the attempt was fruitless. The whole 17 provinces had suffered alike from the tyranny of their sovereign, but particular jealousies prevented a general union, and only seven of these asserted their independence by a solemn treaty, formed at Utrecht, 23rd Jan. 1579; by which it was agreed that they should defend their liberties as one united republic; that they should jointly determine in matters of peace and war, establish a general legislative authority, and maintain a liberty of conscience in matters of religion. These seven united provinces are Guelderland, Holland, Zeeland, Friesland, Utrecht, Overysse, and Groningen. William, prince of Orange, was declared their chief magistrate, general, and admiral, by the title of *Stadtholder*.

5. Philip vented his indignation by a proscription of the prince of Orange, offering 25,000 crowns for his head, and he compassed his revenge, for this illustrious man was cut off by an assassin, 1584. His son Maurice [then of the age of 18] was elected stadtholder in his room, and sustained his important part with great courage and ability. With a slender aid from Elizabeth, of England, who delighted to traverse the plans of Philip, this infant commonwealth accomplished and secured its independence, which it has maintained, till its disgraceful subjugation in the time of Napoleon, the miserable fruit of faction and political disunion.

6. The other ten provinces, whose discontents were ex-

pressed only by murmur and complaint, were soothed by a new charter from Philip, confirming their privileges; while at the same time he took every possible measure to prevent any attempt on their part to throw off the yoke.

LII.—*On the Constitution and Government of the United Provinces.*

1. The treaty of confederation of the seven United Provinces, framed in 1579, and solemnly renewed in 1583, is declared to be, by its nature, indissoluble. Each province thereby preserved its own laws, its magistrates, its sovereignty, and its independence. They formed, however, one body politic, having renounced the right of making separate alliances and treaties, and established a general council, with power of assembling the states and regulating the common affairs of the republic. The assembly of the states-general was originally held only twice a year, but became afterwards a perpetual council.

2. In all matters which regarded not the general interest of the nation, each of the states or provinces was in itself a republic, governed by its own laws and magistrates, and possessing a supreme legislative authority. The deputies from each of the towns formed the council of the province, in which was vested its separate government; and these deputies were regulated by the instructions of their constituents. The votes of the majority of deputies decided in the provincial council, in all matters which regarded not the general interest of the nation.

3. The great council of the states-general always met in assembly at the Hague, was composed of the deputies from the seven provinces, of which Holland sent three, Zealand and Utrecht two, and the others one; each deputy being regulated by the council of his province. A majority of voices was here decisive, unless in the great questions of peace, war, and alliance, in which unanimity was requisite. The disadvantage of this constitution was the delay and difficulty in the execution of public measures. All the towns and all the nobles of a province must deliberate, and instruct their deputy, before the states-general could take the matter under consideration. This great defect was in some measure corrected by the power and influence of the stadtholder.

4. The stadtholder was commander in chief of the sea and land forces, and disposed of all the military employments

He presided over all the courts of justice, and had the power of pardoning crimes. He appointed the magistrates of the towns from a list made by themselves; received and named ambassadors, and was charged with the execution of the laws. He was supreme arbiter in all differences between the provinces, cities, or other members of the state.

5. William, the first stadtholder, did not abuse these high powers; nor did his successors, Maurice and Henry Frederick. But under William II. the states became jealous of an exorbitant authority in their chief magistrate, and on his death the office was for some time abolished. In that interval the republic was almost annihilated by the arms of Louis XIV. ; and, sensible of their error, they restored the office of stadtholder in the person of William III., who retrieved the fortunes and honour of his country. In gratitude for his services, the dignity was made hereditary in his family, a solecism in the government of a republic. On the death of William without issue, the office was once more abolished for 20 years, when it was again restored, declared hereditary in the family of Orange, and descendable even to the issue of a daughter. The only restrictions were, that the succeeding prince should be of the protestant religion, and neither king nor elector of the German empire.

LIII.—*Reign of Philip II.—continued.*

1. The loss of the Netherlands was in some degree compensated to Philip II. by the acquisition of the kingdom of Portugal. Muley Mahomet, king of Fez and Morocco, dethroned by his uncle Muley Moluc, solicited the aid of Don Sebastian, king of Portugal, to regain his throne. Sebastian landed with an army in Africa, but was defeated by the Moors, and slain; and the contending Moorish princes perished in the same engagement. Sebastian was succeeded by his grand-uncle Don Henry, who died after a reign of two years. The competitors for the crown were Don Antonio, prior of Crato, and Philip II., paternal and maternal uncles of the last sovereign. Philip defeated his rival in a decisive engagement at sea, and, without farther opposition, took possession of the throne of Portugal, 1580.

2. Elizabeth of England had warmly espoused the cause of the revolted Netherlands, and her admiral, Sir Francis Drake, had taken some of the Spanish settlements

in America. To avenge these injuries, the Invincible Armada of 150 ships of war, 27,000 men, and 3000 pieces of cannon, was equipped by Philip for the invasion of England. The English fleet of 108 ships attacked them in the night, and burnt and destroyed a great part of the squadron: a storm, which drove them on the rocks and sands of Zealand, completed their discomfiture, and only 50 shattered vessels, with 6000 men, returned to Spain, 1588.

3. The restless spirit of Philip II. was engaged at the same time in the reduction of the Netherlands, the project for the invasion of England, and the dismembering the kingdom of France. The last scheme was as ineffectual as we have seen the two former. It was defeated, at once by the conversion of Henry IV. to the catholic religion. The policy of Philip had nothing in it great or generous. His restless ambition was fitted to embroil Europe, but he had not the judgment to turn the distresses he occasioned to his own advantage. In his own kingdoms, as in his domestic life, he was a gloomy and inhuman tyrant. Yet from the variety and magnitude of his designs, the power by which they were supported, and the splendour of his dominion, the character of Spain was high and respectable in the scale of the nations of Europe.

LIV.—*State of France in the end of the Sixteenth Century, under Henry II., Francis II., Charles IX., Henry III., and Henry IV.*

1. The reformed religion had made the greater progress in France, from the impolitic persecution it sustained from Henry II., the son and successor of Francis I., who though he aided the protestants of Germany in resisting the despotism of Charles V., showed no mercy to their brethren in his own kingdom.

2. On the death of Henry II. the conspiracy of Amboise was planned by the prince of Condé, for the destruction of the duke of Guise, who ruled the kingdom under Francis II., and to whose intolerance and cruelty the protestants attributed all their calamities. Guise owed his ascendancy chiefly to the marriage of his niece, Mary queen of Scots, with the young monarch: and the detection of this conspiracy, the massacre of its principal leaders, and the barbarous punishment of all who partook in it, while they confirmed his power, served only to increase the rancour of the contending parties.

3. Francis II. died after a reign of a year, 1560, and was succeeded by his brother Charles IX., a boy of ten years of age. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medicis, who had no other principle than the love of power, was equally jealous of the influence of the Condés and the Guises. An ecclesiastical assembly, held by her desire at Poissy, gave toleration to the protestants to exercise their worship through all France, without the walls of the towns. The zeal or the imprudence of the duke of Guise infringed this ordinance, and both parties flew to arms. The admiral Coligni headed the troops of the protestants, who were aided by 10,000 Germans from the Palatinate; and Philip of Spain, to increase the disorders, sent an army to the aid of the catholics.

4. The horrors of civil war were aggravated by murders and assassinations. The duke of Guise was the victim of the frantic zeal of an enthusiast. After many desperate engagements with various success, a treacherous peace was agreed to by the catholics; and Coligni, with the chiefs of the protestant party, were invited to court, and received by the queen-mother and her son with the most extraordinary marks of favour; among the rest Henry of Navarre, to whom the young monarch had given his sister in marriage. Such were the preparatives to the infernal massacre of St. Bartholomew. On the night of the 23rd of August, 1572, at the ringing of the matin-bell, a general massacre was made by the catholics of all the protestants throughout the kingdom of France. Charles IX., a monster of cruelty, assisted himself in the murder of his own subjects.*

5. Amidst these horrors, Henry, duke of Anjou, brother of Charles IX., was elected king of Poland, but had scarcely taken possession of his throne when he was called to that of France by the death of its execrable sovereign, 1574. The weakness of the new monarch Henry III. was ill fitted to compose the disorders of the kingdom. Equally bigotted and profligate, he became the scorn of his subjects, and the dupe of the contending factions.

6. The protestant party was now supported by the Prince of Condé, and young Henry of Navarre, descended from Robert of Bourbon, a younger son of Lewis IX.

* About 60,000 persons were massacred on this occasion, 500 members of the upper classes, including Coligni and 10,000 inferior persons, perished in Paris alone.—Ed

The duke of Alençon, the king's brother, had likewise joined their party. The catholics, to accumulate their strength, formed a bond of union, termed the *League*, nominally for defence of the state and its religion, but in reality for usurping all the powers of government, and suppressing the protestant faith. Of this dangerous association Henry III., with the weakest policy, declared himself the head, and thus the avowed enemy of one half of his subjects. He saw his error when too late; and dreading the designs of the duke of Guise and his brother, the cardinal of Lorraine, whose authority had superseded his own, he basely rid himself of his fears by procuring their assassination. This vicious and contemptible tyrant, after a reign of 15 years, was himself assassinated by Jacques Clement, a Jacobin monk, from the frenzy of fanaticism, 1589.

7. The next heir of the crown was Henry of Navarre, who had been educated a protestant by his mother, the daughter of Henry d'Albert, king of Navarre. At the age of 16 he had been declared head of the party of the Huguenots; his uncle, the prince of Condé, and the admiral Coligni acting as his lieutenants. His first military enterprises were unsuccessful. Invited to Paris, at the peace of 1572, to marry the sister of Charles IX., he narrowly escaped from the massacre of St. Bartholomew, but remained three years a prisoner. On the death of Charles, he again took the field against the army of the League, which he defeated in the battle of Courtras, 1587, and still more signally in that of Arques, 1589. After the death of Henry III. he won the celebrated battle of Ivry; and being acknowledged sovereign of France by all but the party of the League then in possession of Paris, he laid siege to the city, which must have capitulated, but for the succours of Philip II. Religion was the sole cause of the disunion of France, and the only obstacle to the acknowledgement of Henry's title by the greatest part of his subjects. At the earnest persuasion of Rosni (duke of Sully), himself a protestant, Henry was prevailed on to declare himself a catholic. He abjured at St. Denis, and was crowned king at Chartres, 1594. He soon after took possession of Paris; but it cost him several years, both of war and negotiation, before he gained the whole of his kingdom, exhausted as it was and ruined by civil discord.

8. The subsequent life of this excellent prince was devoted to the reparation of these misfortunes. After forcing Philip II. to conclude the advantageous peace of Vervins, 1598, his whole attention was bestowed on the improvement of his kingdom, by reforming its laws, regulating its finances, encouraging agriculture and manufactures, enlarging and embellishing the cities, and finally by successfully reconciling the partizans of the contending religions. In all his beneficial schemes, he found an able assistant in his minister the duke of Sully, who has beautifully depicted the life and character of his master. It is in his memoirs that we see not only the great designs, but the private virtues, the engaging and amiable manners of this illustrious man ; who, while he was the arbiter of the contending powers of Europe, was the indulgent father of a happy people.

9. The period of the splendour and happiness of France was of short duration. Henry IV., worthy to be immortal, was assassinated at the age of 57, 4th May, 1610, by Ravallac, an insane fanatic. He meditated, at the time of his death, the great project of a perpetual peace between the states of Europe ; a design highly characteristic of the benevolent mind of its author, but which the weakness of mankind, and the impossibility of reasoning with nations as with wise individuals, must for certain have rendered abortive.

IV.—*History of England and of Scotland in the Reigns of Elizabeth and Mary Queen of Scots.*

1. Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII. by Anna Bullen, succeeded to the throne on the death of her sister Mary, 1558 ; and England attained to a high degree of splendour under the rule of this great and politic princess, whose talents enabled her to pursue the true interests of her people, while her vigorous and intrepid mind led her to take an important part in maintaining the balance of power in Europe. While she encouraged at home every useful art and manufacture, she colonised a great part of North America, supported the infant republic of Holland against its tyrannical enemy, humbled the pride of Spain in the defeat of its Invincible Armada, and assisted Henry IV. in the recovery of his kingdom. It was her fortune to have the aid of most able ministers, and her merit to place her confidence in their counsels.

2. Had Elizabeth been equally endowed with the virtues of the heart as with the powers of the mind, she would have shone the most illustrious character in the annals of modern Europe. Her conduct to her cousin Mary queen of Scots has fixed an indelible stain on her character. Mary, the daughter of James V. and great grand-daughter of Henry VII., educated in France, and married when very young to the dauphin, afterwards Francis II., had imprudently assumed the arms and title of queen of England, by the persuasion of her maternal uncles, the Guises. The pretence of this was the illegitimacy of Elizabeth, declared by Henry VIII. on his divorce from Anna Bullen. This false step laid the foundation of all the miseries of the queen of Scots.

3. The reformation was at this time going forward in Scotland with the most ardent zeal. The earls of Argyle, Morton, Glencairn, and others, its chief promoters, had, by their own authority, suppressed the worship of the mass over a great part of the kingdom. The catholic bishops, by an ill-judged persecution of the reformers, greatly increased the number of their proselytes. They began to muster their strength; and headed by John Knox, a disciple of Calvin, a virtuous man, but of the most furious and intemperate zeal, threw down the altars and images, expelled the priests, and demolished the churches and monasteries. Acting now in arms, and in open defiance of government, the queen-mother, Mary of Guise, attempted by the aid of French troops, to reduce her protestant subjects to submission; and these applied for aid to the protestant queen of England. Elizabeth sent an army and a fleet to their assistance. The death of the queen-mother was followed by a capitulation, by which it was agreed that the French should evacuate Scotland, and that Mary should renounce all pretension to the crown of England. The protestant religion, under presbyterian forms, was now established in the room of the catholic.

4. In this situation of Scotland, Mary, at the age of 18, on the death of her mother, and of her husband Francis II., returned to her hereditary kingdom; having fortunately escaped an English fleet which Elizabeth had dispatched to take her prisoner on her passage. Her misfortunes began from that hour. Her protestant subjects regarded their catholic queen with abhorrence, and looked up to her enemy Elizabeth as their support and defender.

That artful princess had secured to her interest the very men on whom the unsuspecting Mary placed her utmost confidence, her bastard brother the earl of Murray, the earl of Morton, and secretary Lethington. The views of Murray aimed at nothing less than his sister's crown, and the obstacles which opposed his criminal ambition served only to render his attempts more daring and more flagitious.

5. The marriage of Mary with her cousin Lord Darnley, son of the earl of Lennox, who stood in the same relation to Elizabeth, was not relished by that princess. Encouraged by her ministers, Randolph and Cecil, Murray formed a conspiracy to seize and imprison the queen, and put to death her husband, and usurp the government; and on the detection of his designs, attempted to support them by open rebellion. Defeated, exiled, pardoned, and loaded with benefits by his injured sovereign, he persevered in the same atrocious purposes, till he at length accomplished them.

6. The spouse of Mary had incurred her resentment by his vices and his follies. Taking advantage of the weakness of his mind, Murray, Morton, and Lethington, had rendered him jealous of the partiality of Mary for her foreign secretary, the aged Rizzio, and engaged him in the barbarous act of murdering this ill-fated wretch at the feet of the queen, to whose garments he clung for protection. The purpose of this shocking outrage was to increase the illness of Mary, then in bad health, and possibly her death: or should she survive, to alienate completely her affections from her husband, and thus to render her suspected of the design they had projected of cutting him off by assassination. In the latter purpose they succeeded. The house which Darnley inhabited was blown up with gunpowder; his body was found strangled near the place, and the report immediately prevailed that Mary had been accessory to his murder.

7. A most imprudent step, to which she was conducted by the same band of traitors, gave countenance to this suspicion. At the earnest recommendation of Morton and some of her chief nobility, she married the earl of Bothwell, a man openly stigmatized as one of the murderers of her husband. He had, it is true, been absolved on trial for that crime, and had by force made himself master of her person. The plans of Murray and his associates, suc-

cessful to the utmost of their wishes, were now ripe for consummation. On the pretext of the queen's guilt of murder and adultery, she was confined by Murray in the castle of Lochleven, and there compelled to resign her crown into the hands of her unnatural brother, who was to govern the kingdom as regent during the minority of her infant son, now proclaimed king by the title of James VI. 1567. Bothwell escaped beyond seas, and died in Denmark.

8. A great part of the nation reprobated these infamous proceedings. Mary escaped from her confinement; and at the head of an army gave battle to the rebels at Langside; but, being defeated, she fled for shelter to the north of England. Elizabeth, who had secretly taken part in all the machinations of her enemies, had now gained a great object of her ambition: she had in her hands a hated rival, and by her support of Murray and his party, the absolute command of the kingdom of Scotland. Yet policy required some show of friendship and humanity to the queen of Scots, who claimed as a suppliant her protection and aid. She professed her desire to do her justice, but first required that she should clear herself of the crimes alleged against her. To this Mary agreed, in the intrepidity of conscious innocence. In a conference held for that purpose, Murray openly stood forth as the accuser of his sister and queen, appealing to certain letters said to be written by her to Bothwell, plainly intimating her guilt. Copies of these letters were produced. Mary demanded the originals, boldly declaring them to be the forgeries of her enemies; but they were never produced. She retorted on Murray and Morton the charge of Darnley's murder; and the conference was broken off at the command of the queen of England, who detained Mary in close imprisonment.

9. The ungenerous policy of Elizabeth was condemned by her own subjects. The duke of Norfolk, the first of her nobility, and, though a protestant, favoured by the catholic party in England, secretly projected to marry the queen of Scots; and the discovery of these views giving alarm to Elizabeth, brought that ill-fated nobleman to the block, and hastened the doom of the unfortunate Mary. Worn out with the miseries of her confinement, she privately solicited the aid of foreign princes for her deliverance. Her cause was espoused by all the

catholics of England ; and some of the most intemperate of these had formed a plot to deliver her from captivity, and to place her on the throne, by the murder of Elizabeth. This dangerous conspiracy was discovered, and its authors deservedly suffered death. The schemes of Mary for her own deliverance were held presumptive of her acquiescence in the whole of the plot. Though an independent sovereign, she was brought to trial before a foreign tribunal, which had already decreed her fate ; and, being condemned to suffer death, she was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle, 1587, in the 45th year of her age, and 19th of her captivity in England. Previously to this event, Murray had fallen the victim of the private revenge of a gentleman whom he had injured, and Lethington poisoned himself in prison, to escape the sentence of his enemies ; Morton, for some time regent of the kingdom, was afterwards tried, and suffered death for his concern in the murder of Darnley.

10. We have noticed the formidable preparations of Philip II. for the invasion of England, and their disastrous issue, in the total destruction of the Invincible Armada. The English, in their turn, made descents on the Spanish coasts ; and the glory of the nation was nobly sustained by those great admirals, Raleigh, Howard, Drake, Cavendish, and Hawkins. The earl of Essex distinguished himself in those expeditions, and won the favour of Elizabeth, both by his prowess and personal accomplishments. The death of Leicester, her former favourite, and of her minister Burleigh, left Essex unrivalled in her affections, and of chief authority in the direction of her councils. Haughty and impatient of control, he disgusted the nobles ; and his failure in quelling a rebellion in Ireland gave them ground to undermine him in the favour of his sovereign. In the madness of inordinate ambition, he proposed to possess himself of the person of the queen, and compel her to remove his enemies, and acquiesce in all his measures. This treasonable enterprise brought him to the scaffold, 1600.

11. From that time Elizabeth fell into profound melancholy, and soon after died, in the 70th year of her age, 1603, having named for her successor James VI., king of Scotland. Her talents were great, and the firmness of her mind unequalled ; yet her private character was tarnished by cruelty, hypocrisy, and an insatiable desire of

admiration. Her maxims of government were despotic, and she had little regard for the liberties of her people, or the privileges of her parliaments, to whom she never allowed the liberty of disputing her commands. The actual government of England in those days was little different from an absolute monarchy.

LVI.—*History of Great Britain in the Reigns of James I. and Charles I.*

1. James VI. of Scotland succeeded by hereditary right to the throne of England, thus uniting the two crowns; a prince of considerable learning and talents, but of little vigour of mind or political energy. He became unpopular, from his notions of an uncontrollable prerogative, to which, unwisely proclaiming his title, he provoked his subjects to question it. The current of public opinion was now strongly turned to an extension of the rights of the subject, and retrenchment of the powers of the crown; and during this reign, the seeds were sown of that spirit of resistance on the part of the people, which was destined, in the next, to overturn the constitution.

2. Domestic events were such as chiefly distinguished the reign of James I. A conspiracy was discovered in 1603, for subverting the government, and placing the king's cousin, Arabella Stuart, on the throne, in which the Lords Cobham and Grey, and Sir Walter Raleigh, were principally concerned. The two former were pardoned, and Raleigh condemned, but reprieved; when, on the ground of his infringement of the peace with Spain, by unwarrantably attacking one of her American settlements, he was, after an interval of 15 years, beheaded on his former sentence.

3. Another conspiracy followed, of a still more dangerous nature, the gunpowder treason; a plot of the catholics to destroy, at one blow, the king and the whole body of the parliament, 1604. It was discovered, from a circumstance of private friendship, on the very eve of its accomplishment; and the principal conspirators suffered a capital punishment. The public indignation now raged against the catholics, and the humanity of James, which sought to mitigate this fury, was as ungenerously as absurdly construed into a favour which he entertained for their religious principles.

4. It was a peculiar weakness of the king to attach

himself to undeserving favourites. Such was Carr, earl of Somerset, who had no other recommendation than a handsome person, and who, after several years' exercise of all the insolence of power, fell into disgrace, on conviction of his concern in an infamous murder. His place was supplied by Villiers, afterwards duke of Buckingham; a man devoid of every talent of a minister, and odious to all ranks of the state. He planned a journey of Charles, prince of Wales, into Spain, to court the infanta; and, by his folly and insolence, frustrated the treaty on the brink of its conclusion.

5. Elizabeth, the daughter of James, was married to the protestant elector palatine, who was dispossessed of his electorate by the emperor Ferdinand III. for imprudently accepting the crown of Bohemia, till then an appanage of the empire. James was urged by parliament to a war in defence of his son-in-law, which touched the nation both as a point of honour, and as a cause of the protestant interest. He sent a feeble armament which was of no service; the only military enterprise of his reign. His favourite project was a complete union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland, a measure which however beneficial, the mutual prejudices of the two nations were as yet too violent to bear. As a preparatory step, the episcopal hierarchy was introduced into Scotland; but this served only as the food of future commotions. James I. died 1625, in the 59th year of his age, and 22nd of his reign over England.

6. On an impartial estimate of the character of the succeeding monarch, Charles I., it may be allowed, that had the nation in his reign entertained the same ideas of the regal prerogative, of the powers of parliament, and of the liberty of the subject, that had prevailed for the two preceding centuries, this unfortunate prince would have reigned with high popularity. But it was his lot to mount the throne at that critical period, when the public opinion had undergone an entire revolution on those topics; and with many excellent endowments both of head and heart, he wanted that political prudence which should have taught him to yield to the necessity of the times.

7. Charles quarrelled with his first parliament on their refusal of adequate supplies for the war in support of his brother-in-law the elector palatine. Engaged to his allies, the king, dissolving the parliament, issued warrants for

borrowing money of the subject. A new parliament was found equally uncomplying, and evinced its jealousy of the king by the impeachment of his minister, Buckingham; Charles avenging the insult by imprisoning two members of the house of commons. A quarrel thus begun received continual addition from new causes of offence. The levying money from the subject was enforced by billeting soldiers on those who refused to lend to the crown; and some were even imprisoned on that account. A war was undertaken against France by Buckingham's instigation, a sufficient cause of its unpopularity; and it ended in a fruitless attempt on Rochelle. The king again dissolved his parliament, 1626.

8. A new parliament exhibited a spirit of determined reformation. A *petition of right* was passed by both houses, which declared the illegality of raising money without their sanction, or enforcing loans from the subject, annulled all taxes imposed without consent of parliament, and abolished the exercise of the martial law; and Charles was obliged, with much reluctance, to give his assent to this great retrenchment of prerogative, sanctioned by the usage of the most popular of his predecessors.

9. The taxes of tonnage and poundage had usually been continued from one reign to another. On this ground the king conceived he was warranted to levy them without a new grant; and a member of the house of commons was imprisoned on refusal to pay them. This arbitrary measure excited an outrageous ferment in that assembly, and the consequence was a new dissolution of the parliament, 1629.

10. It was now a measure of necessity to make peace with France and Spain. The king persevered in levying the tonnage, poundage and ship-money, and high fines were imposed for various offences, without trial, by authority of the star-chamber. The legality of the tax of ship-money was disputed by John Hampden; but he was condemned by the court of exchequer, contrary, as was generally thought, to justice and the laws of the realm.

11. These discontents were increased by religious enthusiasm. Charles, by the advice of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, had relaxed the penalties against catholics, and countenanced some innovations in the ceremonials of church worship, preludes, as they were termed, to the popish idolatries. He had likewise imprudently attempted to introduce the liturgy of the church of England among the

Scots; measures which excited in the latter country the most general discontent, and produced the most violent commotions. A bond termed the *National Covenant*, containing an oath of resistance to all religious innovations, was subscribed in Scotland by all ranks and conditions; and in a general assembly at Glasgow, the episcopal hierarchy was solemnly abolished, 1638. To maintain this violent procedure, the Scots reformers took up arms; and after seizing and fortifying the most important places of strength in the kingdom, boldly marched into the heart of England.

12. It was now absolutely necessary to assemble a parliament; and the king at length saw that the torrent was irresistible, and resolved, though too late, to give it way. A bill passed for abolishing the tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament, and received the royal assent. Monopolies of every kind were abolished. A parliament was agreed to be summoned every third year. Unsatisfied with these concessions, the commons impeached the earl of Strafford, the king's first minister, of high treason, together with Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who were charged, as the chief counsellors of the crown, with a design of subverting the laws and constitution of the realm. The fate of Strafford, whose trial by his peers would have terminated in his acquittal, was secured by a bill of attainder, to which the king was, with the greatest reluctance, forced to give his assent. The commons seized that moment of anguish to obtain his consent to a decisive measure, a bill which rendered the parliament perpetual, by declaring that it should not be dissolved or adjourned but by its own decree, 1641. Strafford and Laud were both beheaded.

13. This last measure of the commons evinced a determined purpose to overturn the constitution. Their proceedings hitherto had the show of justice, and most of them might be vindicated on the principles of true patriotism. But from this period their conduct was treason to their country and its government. The last bill destroyed the equal balance of the constitution of England, and every subsequent measure was a step towards its entire annihilation.

14. The Irish catholics took advantage of these disorders, and, with the purpose of assuming the entire command of that kingdom, and shaking off its dependence on England, attempted, in one day, to massacre all the protes-

tants in Ireland.* To extinguish this horrible rebellion, Charles consigned to the parliament the charge of the war, which they interpreted into a transference to them of the whole military powers of the crown. Under this authority a great force was levied, and supplied with arms from the royal magazines.

15. The bishops having complained that their lives were in danger from the populace, and protested against the proceedings of the lords in their absence, were impeached of treason by the commons, and committed to the tower. The patience of Charles was exhausted. He caused to be impeached five of the commons, and went in person to the house to seize them; a breach of the privilege of parliament, for which he found it necessary to atone by a humiliating message.

16. A new bill of the commons, naming the commanders of all the fortified places, who should be responsible to parliament alone, was understood to be a declaration of war. The next step was to assume the whole legislative power, by declaring it a breach of privilege to dispute the law of the land declared by the lords and commons. But the former were merely in name, being entirely under the control of the latter.

17. The sword was now to decide the contest. The royal cause was supported by a great proportion of the lauded interest, all the friends of the established church, and all the catholics in the kingdom. On the side of the parliament were the city of London and most of the greater towns, with all the dissenters and sectaries. The first campaign was favourable to the royalists. They defeated the parliamentary forces at Worcester and Edgehill, but lost the battle of Newbury.

18. The parliament now entered into a strict confederacy with the Scots, both in the articles of politics and religion; and the *Solemn League and Covenant*, a new bond more specific in its objects than the former, and more treasonable in its purpose, was framed at Edinburgh, for the purification of both churches, the reformation of both kingdoms, the maintenance of the privileges of king and parliament, and the bringing to justice all malignants. In consequence of this confederacy, 20,000 Scots took the field to co-operate with the forces of the parliament.

* It is computed that upwards of 40,000 protestants were massacred on this occasion; no age, sex or rank was spared.—ED.

19. Oliver Cromwell commanded at this time a regiment of horse under Fairfax, general of the parliament, but in reality directed all the measures of the army. In Scotland the royal cause was gallantly sustained by the marquess of Montrose ; but all was lost in England by the defeat at Naseby, 1645. The king's troops being entirely dispersed, he threw himself into the hands of the Scots, who basely delivered him up to the commissioners of parliament, from whom he was taken by Cromwell's orders, and conducted to the army, now the masters of the kingdom. Cromwell, entering London, assumed an absolute control over the parliament, and imprisoned all who disputed his authority. Charles, escaping from his confinement, fled to the Isle of Wight, but was there detained a prisoner in Carisbrook Castle.

20. The parliament, suffering under this military usurpation, were now sincerely desirous of terminating a miserable anarchy by a treaty with the king, and, after a long negotiation, all terms were finally adjusted. Charles agreed to resign to parliament the military power, the disposal of all the offices of state, and the right of creating peers without their consent ; he agreed to abolish the episcopal hierarchy, and to establish the presbyterian discipline ; and these concessions the parliament accepted by a majority of suffrages, and declared to be a sufficient basis for the settlement of the kingdom. Cromwell instantly surrounded the house of commons, and excluding all but his own partizans (about 60 in number). a second vote was passed, rescinding the former, and declaring it treason in a king to levy war against his parliament. A court of justice was then appointed to try the king for this act of treason. The house of lords having unanimously rejected this decree, were immediately voted, by this junto of independents, to be a useless branch of the constitution.

21. Charles was brought to trial ; and refusing to acknowledge the authority of his judges, was condemned to suffer death. He was beheaded on the 30th of January, 1649. The arbitrary proceedings of this monarch in the beginning of his reign, were certainly sufficient to justify that resistance on the part of the people which at length produced its effect, in confining the regal authority within its just bounds, and securing the rational liberties of the subject. But from the period that this end was

attained, resistance ceased to be lawful. Its farther operations were criminal in the extreme. The subsequent usurpations of the commons can no more be justified on any constitutional principle, than the murder of the king can be defended on the score of legality, justice or humanity.

LVII.—*The Commonwealth of England.*

1. The parliament of Scotland had taken no part in these latter scenes, and had formally protested against the trial of the king. On his death they proclaimed Charles II. their sovereign, but on the express condition of his signing the covenant, and ratifying their confession of faith. Ireland recognised him without any conditions. The heroic marquis of Montrose landed in the north of Scotland with a few foreign troops, and attempted to reduce the party of the covenanters, and establish the legal authority of the king, independent of the servile restrictions with which they had fettered it; but, attacked by a much superior force, he was defeated, and betrayed into the hands of his enemies, who put him to death by the hands of the executioner, 1650; displaying in the circumstances of his punishment all the insolence of cruelty which distinguishes revenge in the meanest of souls. Charles betook himself to Scotland, and was obliged, however reluctantly, to acquiesce in all the terms that were imposed on him.

2. Cromwell, with 16,000 men, marched into Scotland against the now royalist covenanters, whom he defeated in the battle of Dunbar; and then following the royal army, which retreated into England, he cut them to pieces in the decisive battle of Worcester, September 3, 1651. Charles fled in disguise through the western and southern counties, till he found an opportunity of escaping to France. Cromwell returned in triumph to London.

3. The republican parliament formed and executed great designs. A war with Holland was most ably maintained on both sides, by those great naval commanders, Blake, Van Tromp, and De Ruyter; but the advantage was greatly in favour of the English, who took about 1600 of the Dutch ships. The parliament, proud of these successes, justly conceived that while the nation was thus powerful at sea, the land army was an unnecessary burden, and determined to reduce it. To prevent this measure,

Cromwell framed a remonstrance of the army, demanding the election of a new parliament; and this meeting with no regard, he entered the house of commons, which he had surrounded with his troops, and, declaring the parliament dissolved by his authority, forcibly turned the members out of doors. The republic of England, which had subsisted four years and three months, was thus annihilated in one moment, April 20, 1653.

4. It was necessary, however, that there should be the appearance of a parliament. A few mean persons, of fanatical character, were chosen by Cromwell's partisans, from the different counties of England, with five from Scotland, and six from Ireland, to hold their functions for 15 months. This assembly, termed *Barebone's Parliament*, from its leading member, a leather-seller, became the scorn of the public, and was dissolved by its own vote, after five months.

5. The government was now vested in the council of officers, who nominated Oliver Cromwell lord protector of the three kingdoms, invested him with the power of making peace, war, and alliance, and authorized a standing army of 30,000 men to be kept up for the support of government. His administration was despotic, vigorous, and spirited. He maintained the honour of the nation in the war with the Dutch, compelling them to yield the honour of the flag, and to compensate to the India Company all its losses. He was successful, likewise, in his negotiations with France and Spain. But in his domestic government he was traversed by his parliaments, whom it cost him a continual struggle, and even violence, to keep in order. One parliament, properly prepared, voted him the regal title, which, by the counsel of his best friends, he was forced most unwillingly to refuse. In recompense of this self-denial, the parliament confirmed his title of protector, with a fixed revenue, and decreed his right of appointing a successor. He was king in all but the name.

6. By consent of parliament, Cromwell appointed a house of lords; but all the ancient peers declined the proffered honour. He was forced to choose them from the commons; and thus he lost the majority in the lower house. His temper soured with disappointment, a prey to chagrin, and in continual fear of assassination, he fell at length into a mortal disease, and died in the 59th year of his age, 3rd September, 1658.

7. Richard Cromwell, the son of Oliver, succeeded, by his father's appointment, to the protectorate; a man of weak understanding and facile temper, utterly unfit for his hazardous situation, which accordingly he maintained only for a few months, resigning his office on the 22nd April, 1659. His brother Henry, viceroy of Ireland, immediately followed his example; and the family of the Cromwells, which the talents of one man had elevated above the sovereigns of their country, returned once more to its original obscurity.

8. The remains of that nominal parliament which had put the king to death, termed, in derision, the *Rump*, was now dissolved by the council of officers. Of these every aspiring individual had his own separate views of ambition. Intrigue, cabal, and anarchy, were universal; and the nation, looking forward with horror to a series of calamities, began earnestly to desire the restitution of its ancient government. George Monk, commander of the army in Scotland, judged these symptoms favourable for restoring the exiled monarch to the throne of his ancestors. Marching his army into England, he declared his resolution to bring about the election of a free parliament, which all men knew to be synonymous with the restoration of the king. It was of course violently opposed by the republican party, who even attempted to excite a new civil war; but they were forced at length to acquiesce in the measure. A free parliament was assembled; and a message being presented from Charles, offering a full indemnity, complete liberty of conscience, and payment to the army of all arrears, it was received with transports of joy, and Charles II. proclaimed king 29th May, 1660.

LVIII.—*The reigns of Charles II. and James II.*

1. The nation, without imposing any terms on their new sovereign, trusted implicitly to his good dispositions. These were humane and complacent; but the character of Charles, indolent, luxurious, and prodigal, was neither fitted to support the national honour abroad, nor to command obedience and respect to his domestic government. The sale of Dunkirk was a measure offensive to the pride of the nation. A war with Holland, supported at vast expense, and maintained in many desperate but indecisive engagements, was attended finally with no material benefit. By the treaty of Breda, concluded in 1667, New

York was secured to the English, the Isle of Polderne to the Dutch, and Acadia in North America, to the French.

2. The sale of Dunkirk, and the unsuccessful issue of the war, attributed to the counsel of the earl of Clarendon, procured the disgrace and banishment of that illustrious man, 1667. The peace was scarcely concluded with Holland, when England joined with her and Sweden, in a triple alliance, to oppose the progress of the arms of Lewis XIV. in the low countries; and that object being attained, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1668, the French monarch gained the English over to his interest in a new war against the Dutch, which brought their republic to the brink of destruction.

3. The domestic administration of Charles was embroiled from various causes, originating in the personal character and disposition of the sovereign. He trusted to profligate and worthless counsellors. His arbitrary notions of government, and the partiality he showed to the catholics, gave perpetual alarm and uneasiness to a great proportion of his subjects. Complaints resounded from every quarter; and the parliament required a test oath, abjuring popery, from all persons in public employment. On refusal to take this oath, the king's brother, James duke of York, was deprived of his office of high admiral.

4. Titus Oates, a worthless impostor, pretended to have discovered a plot of the catholics for assassinating the king, burning London, massacring the protestants, and placing the duke of York on the throne. Another villain, named Bedloe, joined his evidence to that of Oates; and on their perjured testimony, afterwards fully exposed, a few miserable priests suffered death. A new test was imposed, which excluded all papists from both houses of parliament. The treasurer Danby was impeached for advising the last peace with France, though it was proved that he had acted by his sovereign's orders; and a bill passed the house of commons, excluding the duke of York from the succession to the crown. A more important bill for the general liberty, the act of *Habeas Corpus*, was the work of the same session of parliament. (See sect. 59, § 14) [and *postea*, 313.]

5. The distinguishing epithets of whig and tory were now first known; the former, the opposers of the crown, against the latter, its partisans; and each party, as in all

factions, carried its principles to an extreme. The whigs, predominant in the next parliament, raged with fury against the catholics, and insisted on the king's assent to the bill for the exclusion of his brother. He had no other expedient but to dissolve them, but found their successors equally violent. After various fruitless attempts to conciliate their favour to his measures, a dissolution ensued of this parliament, the last which Charles assembled.

6. But the great cause of dissatisfaction remained. The duke of York was at the bottom of all the measures of government. A conspiracy was formed by Shaftesbury, Russell, Sidney, and the duke of Monmouth, natural son of the king, on the pretence of vindicating the national liberties. It was discovered by one of the associates, and Russell and Sidney suffered a capital punishment. The detection of this conspiracy strengthened the authority of the sovereign. The duke of York was restored to his office of high admiral, and tacitly acknowledged as the successor to the crown. Charles II. died 6th February 1685, in the 55th year of his age, and the 25th year of his reign.

7. The duke of York succeeded to the throne by the title of James II. His reign was short and inglorious. He was the instrument of his own misfortunes, and ran headlong to destruction. The catholics at this time were not the hundredth part of the nation, yet James was weak enough to make the desperate attempt of substituting the popish faith in room of the protestant. Discarding the nobility from his councils, he was directed solely by Romish priests; and in the very outset of his reign expressed his contempt of the authority of parliament, and a firm purpose to exercise an unlimited despotism.

8. The duke of Monmouth having excited a new rebellion, was defeated, made prisoner, and beheaded; and the most inhuman rigour was shown in the punishment of all his partisans. The parliament was in general submissive to the king's will, which for awhile met with no opposition or control. A declaration was published, establishing full liberty of conscience in matters of religion; and several bishops, who refused to publish it in their dioceses, were committed to prison. A catholic president was appointed to one of the colleges at Oxford. An ambassador was sent to the pope, and a papal nuncio received in London. The catholics openly boasted that theirs would soon be the religion of the state.

9. James had three children : Mary, the wife of the stadtholder William, prince of Orange ; Anne, married to prince George of Denmark ; and James, an infant. The stadtholder had looked on his right to the crown of England as certain before the birth of this infant, and after that event, projected still to gain it by arms or intrigue ; the infatuation of the king, and the general discontent of the people, giving him the most flattering invitation. James himself was informed of these views of his son-in-law, but would give them no credit, till actually apprised of his landing with an army, 15th November, 1688.

10. The principal nobility and officers immediately joined the standard of the prince of Orange ; and James was at once abandoned by his people, his ministers, his favourites, and his own children. Leaving London in disguise, he was discovered and brought back by the populace ; but the prince of Orange wisely favouring his escape, he found means a few days after to convey himself to France.

11. The throne being declared vacant, it was proposed in a convention-parliament, that the crown should be settled on the princess Mary, and her issue, her husband governing as regent ; who failing, on the princess Anne. The stadtholder declining the office of regent, it was finally resolved to confer the crown on the prince and princess of Orange, the former to have the sole administration of the government.

12. To this settlement was added a declaration, fixing the rights of the subject and the royal prerogative. Of this the most important articles are the following : The king cannot suspend the laws or their execution ; he cannot levy money without consent of parliament : The subjects have right to petition the crown : A standing army cannot be kept up in time of peace but by consent of parliament : elections and parliamentary debate must be free, and parliaments must be frequently assembled, &c. Such was the final settlement of the British government at the great era of the revolution.

LIX.—On the British Constitution.

1. The rudiments of the constitution of England may be traced as far back as the Norman conquest. William

distributed a great proportion of the lands among his Norman followers, subjecting these, as well as the Anglo-Saxons who retained their property, to the feudal tenures, and thus extinguishing at once the ancient liberties of the people. England was divided into 60,215 military fiefs, all held of the crown, under the obligation of the [tenant or] vassal taking arms for his sovereign whenever required. In the continental kingdoms of Europe, as in France, the feudal system arose by slow degrees, nor was there, of consequence, the same union of the fabric as in England. The feudal lords were independent of each other, ever at variance from their mutual pretensions, and often owing but a very slender al'giance to the crown. Their vassals suffered from oppression, and often struggled for their freedom ; but these efforts being partial, produced no consequence favourable to the liberty of the nation. In England, all were oppressed by the enormous weight of the crown ; it was a common grievance, and produced at times, a violent effort for the general liberties of the people.

2. The forest laws imposed by the Conqueror (see sect. 15, § 2, 11,) were a grievance felt by the whole nation, as rendering every man's property precarious, and subject to the arbitrary encroachments of the crown. It was no wonder that the barons and their vassals should cordially unite to rid themselves of só intolerable a hardship. Henry I. found it necessary to conciliate his subjects, by mitigating the most rigorous of the feudal laws. A greater advance was made under Henry II. by the institution of the trial by jury. But John, imprudently resisting this natural progress towards a rational freedom, was soon compelled into those important concessions, the *Charta de Foresta* and *Magna Charta*. From that time, whatever we may judge of the actual government, which was often most arbitrary and despotical, the constitution of England was that of a limited monarchy.

3. The next memorable era in the growth of the English constitution was the reign of Henry III., when, under that weak prince, the parliament received a new form, by the admission of the representatives of the people, the deputies of the counties and boroughs. (Sect. 22, § 2.) His successor, Edward I., acknowledged their authority in obtaining all his subsidies, and ratified a new law, which declared, that no tax should be levied without the

consent of lords and commons. The Magna Charta was confirmed no less than 11 times in the course of this reign.

4. Thus the constitution continued advancing, till its progress was suspended by the civil wars of York and Lancaster. The rights of both prince and people seemed then to be entirely forgotten; and the race of Tudor found no resistance from parliament to their vigorous but despotic sway. The talents of Elizabeth, and the high character which her government sustained with foreign powers, extinguished all domestic disquiets, while the predominant feeling was the maintenance of the power and dignity of the crown.

5. But under the succeeding prince, when that power and dignity were abased by his own weakness, the nation began to awake from its lethargy; and that spirit of opposition, which in this reign confined itself to complaints, was in the next to break forth with alarming violence. Charles I., endowed with superior energy of character, and acting, as he conceived, on a principle of duty, which called on him to maintain the prerogative of his predecessors, and transmit it unimpaired to his posterity, was imprudent in exerting with rigour an authority which he wanted ultimate resources to support. He was compelled to sign the *Petition of Rights*, a grant more favourable to liberty than *Magna Charta*. The true patriots were satisfied with this concession, which conferred the most ample constitutional freedom. But with the popular leaders; patriotism was the cloak of insatiable ambition; and, advancing in their demands with every new compliance, the last appeal was made to the sword, and the contest ended by the destruction of the constitution.

6. The despotism which succeeded, and the fluctuation of power from the long parliament to the protector, and finally to the leaders of a standing army, afforded convincing demonstration how vain was the chimera of a republic, under which the demagogues had masked their designs. Weary of anarchy, the nation returned, with high satisfaction, to the best of all constitutions, a limited monarchy.

7. New encroachments under Charles II. produced new limitations, and the act of *Habeas Corpus* gave the utmost possible security to personal liberty. The violent and frantic invasion of the constitution by James II. banished himself and his posterity from the throne, and

produced a new and solemn contract between the king and people. Regarding, therefore, the revolution as the final settlement of the English constitution, we shall endeavour briefly to delineate the chief features of that great political structure.

8. The constitution of Great Britain may be viewed under two distinct heads, the legislative and the executive power: the last comprehending the prerogative of the crown.

The power of legislation belongs to parliament, whose constituent parts are, the king, lords, and commons. The house of lords consists of the temporal peers of England, and the spiritual, viz., to two archbishops and 24 bishops. To these, since the union with Scotland and Ireland, are added 16 delegates from the peerage of the former kingdom, and 32 from the latter. The house of commons consists of the deputies of the counties, principal towns, [and boroughs] of England, and the two universities, amounting in all to 513 members; to whom, since the unions, are added 45 from Scotland, and 100 from Ireland. These deputies are chosen by the freeholders who possess [and by leaseholders and occupiers of] a property yielding a certain yearly rent. The chancellor generally presides in the house of lords; the speaker is president in the house of commons.*

9. The king is the most essential component part of parliament, because he alone has the power to convoke, prorogue, and dissolve it. He has likewise a negative on all its acts, which are invalid without his approbation;

* By the Reform act passed on the 7th of June, 1832, householders rated at £10, are entitled to vote. By this act a mode of registration and revision of the lists of electors was established, and the elective franchise was much altered and amended; the house of lords at the present time (1845), consists of the following, viz.

Princes of the blood royal.	3
Dukes.	21
Marquesses .	
Earls . . .	116
Viscounts .	21
Barons .	209
Peers of Scotland	16
Peers of Ireland, 28; 4 of whom are also peers of Great Britain	28
English archbishops and bishops .	26
Irish representative archbishops and bishops	4

Total 494

The house of commons as at present constituted, consists of 658 representatives of the people, viz.

and each house has a negative on the decrees of the other. It is likewise competent to the king to propose any measure to be laid before the parliament.

10. All questions regarding public affairs and national measures may originate in either house of parliament, except grants of money, which must take their rise in the house of commons, and cannot be altered, though they may be rejected, by the lords. The matter must be primarily discussed in that house in which it originates, and until there decided, cannot be received by the other, unless a conference should be demanded. A bill refused by either house, or, though passed by both, refused by the king, is utterly void.

11. The executive power of government is lodged in the king. (1.) The first branch of his office is the administration of justice. The judges of all courts of judicature are the king's substitutes. He is the prosecutor of all crimes, and has the power of pardoning and suspending the execution of all sentences. (2.) He is the fountain of all honour, and giver of all titles and dignities, and the disposer of all the offices of state. (3.) He is the superintendent of commerce, and has the power of regulating weights and measures, and of coining money. (4.) He is the head of the church, and names the archbishops and bishops. (5.) He is commander-in-chief of all the sea and land forces, and can alone equip fleets, levy armies, and appoint all their officers. (6.) He has the power of making war, peace, and alliance, and of sending and receiving ambassadors. (7.) He is above the reach of all courts of justice, and is not responsible to any judicature for his conduct in the administration of government.

ENGLAND.—County members				143
Isle of Wight				1
Universities				4
Cities, boroughs, and Cinque Ports .				323
				—471
WALES—County members				15
Boroughs				14
				—29
SCOTLAND—County members				30
Cities and boroughs				23
				—53
IRELAND—County members				64
University				2
Cities and boroughs				39
				—105
Total				668

12. These high powers of the sovereign, which at first sight would seem to render him an absolute monarch, are thus admirably controlled: the king is dependent on parliament for all subsidies, without which he can neither maintain his fleets and armies, nor pay the salaries of his officers. The parliament, indeed, settles a revenue on the king for life, but this is merely sufficient for the maintenance of his household and supporting a proper dignity of establishment; and as it must be renewed by parliament at the beginning of every reign, it is in the power of that body to withhold it till all abuses shall be remedied. Thus the constitution may be brought back at those periods to its first principles, and all encroachment of the prerogative restrained.

13. The king can never reign without a parliament. It must by law be assembled once in three years, on a notice of forty days before its meeting. Although the head of the church, the king cannot alter the established religion, nor frame ecclesiastical regulations; these must be made by the assembly of the clergy. The king cannot interfere in the ordinary administration of justice, nor refuse his consent to the prosecution of crimes. He may pardon offences, but cannot exempt the offender from pecuniary compensation to the party injured. He cannot alter the standard of money, either in weight or alloy. He cannot raise an army without the consent of parliament; and though a moderate standing force is kept up with their consent, the funds for its payment require an annual renewal by parliament.

Finally, although the sovereign himself is not amenable to any judicature, his ministers are responsible for all the measures of government; and are impeachable by the commons at the bar of the house of lords for every species of misconduct or misdemeanour.

Moreover, the freedom of parliamentary discussion is secured, as no member can be questioned for any opinions or words but in that house of parliament in which they were uttered.

14. The personal security and the rights of the subjects are further guarded by these three peculiarities of the British constitution—the *habeas corpus*, trial by juries, and the liberty of the press. By the act of *habeas corpus* [31 Car. 2, c. 2,] every prisoner must be brought before a judge, the cause of his detainer certified, and the judge's

authority interposed to it, [either to discharge or remand the party charged, or else to deliver him on bail]. The violation of this statute is punishable by the highest penalties. The *habeas corpus* may be suspended in times of danger to the state, as during the existence of a conspiracy or rebellion. Although this act does not extend to Scotland, the subjects of that part of the united kingdom are equally secured by their own laws.*

15. All crimes must be tried by a jury of 12 men in England and Ireland, and 15 in Scotland. The prisoner has a right of challenging or objecting to the jurors; and (except in Scotland), without shewing any cause, he may challenge 20 successively in ordinary cases, and 35 in cases of treason. The jury are judges both of the law and the fact; nor has the opinion of the court any weight in their decision, but such as they choose to give it. [If an alien be a party in a criminal suit, he has the right to be tried by a jury one half denizens, and the other half aliens.]

16. The liberty of the press is in this respect a guardian of the constitution, that it is competent for any individual to convey to the public his opinion of the whole conduct of government, and the merits of its conductors; to canvass every counsel of state, and examine every public measure; thus forcibly restraining all ministers and magistrates within the limits of their duty. It is, farther, the guardian of injured innocence, and the redresser of all wrongs that evade the cognizance of law. Yet this most valuable right, if itself unrestrained, would be the source of the greatest mischief. If it were allowable with impunity to assail the established government, to convulse society, to disseminate atheism, to injure the reputation or endanger the life and property of individuals by false accusations, there would be an end of all liberty and civil happiness. The liberty of the press consists in this, that there is no examination of writings previous to their being printed and published; but, after publication, such writings as offend in any of the above particulars, are, on trial of the offence by jury, punishable by law. Thus the public is properly constituted the judge and censor of all writings addressed to itself.

17. Such are briefly the outlines of the admirable fabric of the British constitution. "May it last for ever."

* Statute 1701, c. vi.

LX.—Of the Public Revenue of Great Britain.

1. The property belonging to the crown of Great Britain, which was anciently very great, and fully adequate to the maintenance of government, consisted of domain-lands, the first-fruits and tenths of church benefices, the rents of vacant bishoprics and abbeys, the profits of military tenures, fines imposed in courts of justice, forfeitures, &c. These are now, from alienations made by the sovereigns and retrenchments of their prerogative, become so inconsiderable, that the king may be considered as entirely dependent on the people for the support of his dignity, and the means of carrying on the business of the state. The public revenue, destined both for the former and latter purpose, arises now from the subsidies granted by the people. The supplies are voted by the commons, and the means of furnishing them, by taxes proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer, must receive their sanction.

2. Of these taxes, some are annual, as the land-tax and malt-tax; and others perpetual, as the customs, excise, salt duty, post-office duty, stamps, house and window-tax, duties on servants, hackney-coaches, pensions, &c. The customs are a tax paid by the merchant on all imported and exported commodities; the excise an inland imposition, laid sometimes on the consumer, and sometimes on the retail seller.

3. The produce of these taxes is, in the first place, destined to the paying of the interest of the national debt, and afterwards to the ordinary support of government.

The national debt arose soon after the Revolution, when it was thought hazardous to impose annual taxes equal to the annual expense of government, and more expedient to borrow large sums for the immediate service of the state, raising annually no more than to pay the interest of that debt. The same system has been since persevered in; so that the national debt, which a century ago was 16,000,000, is now [1846] above 800,000,000. To pay the interest of this enormous sum, the produce of the taxes (excepting the malt and land-tax) are primarily destined; and as somewhat more is annually raised than that exigence and the maintenance of government demand, the surplus constitutes a *sinking fund* for paying off the principal of the debt.*

* The sinking fund has long been repudiated as a fallacy. It is now generally admitted that the most reasonable plan of liquidating the national

4. The produce of the taxes, originally separate funds, is now thrown into two or three capital funds, one of which is mortgaged by parliament for the maintenance of the king's household and the civil list, viz., the salaries of officers of state, judges, ambassadors, private expenses, pensions, &c.

5. Notwithstanding the little prospect of an extinction of the national debt, government maintains its credit, and will always find lenders, because the terms granted are beneficial, and the security is transferable; so that a lender can thus always obtain payment of his principal sum, and frequently make gain by the transference. The value of stock rises and falls from various occasional causes, as national prosperity, or the reverse, plenty or scarcity of money, quantity of public debt. On this variation is founded the practice of stock-jobbing; that is, either buying and selling actual property in the public funds, which is a lawful speculation, or gaming and wagering on the price of stock, which is an illicit though common practice. The practice of stock-jobbing, even by the transference of actual property, far more by gaming on that which is fictitious, is prejudicial to commerce and manufactures, by engrossing a great part of the national wealth, repressing industry, encouraging fraud, and often tempting to the most treacherous and dangerous devices for raising and sinking the funds

LXI.—*History of France under Louis XIII.*

1. France, which under Henry IV. had risen from a state of miserable anarchy to high prosperity and splendour, sunk, upon his death, into weakness, faction, and disorder. Mary of Medici, regent in the minority of her son Louis XIII., a weak woman, and of restless ambition, disgusted the nobility by her partiality for her Italian courtiers. Concini, her first minister, created marshal d'Ancre, became so universally odious, that he was openly murdered in the Louvre, and his body torn to pieces. The queen was removed from Paris, and kept for two years a prisoner at Blois, till relieved by the duke d'Epernon, to

debt is to convert it into terminable annuities. Sir H. Parnell observes, if all the loans which have been raised since the beginning of the war of 1739, had been borrowed in annuities for 99 years, in 1840 the extinction of them would commence, and in 84 years the whole debt incurred up to 1815 would be extinguished. More need not be said to prove the expediency of borrowing in terminable annuities.—W.D.

serve his own purpose of ambition. The queen's party was at war with that of her son, and the whole kingdom in a state of anarchy.

2. The genius of Cardinal Richelieu, who was now brought into power by Mary of Medici, soon effected a wonderful change. He reconciled the mother and her son, soothed the contending factions, and on the king's assuming the government, directed every public measure to the complete re-establishment of the power and dignity of the monarchy. The party of the calvinists, alienated by persecution, attempted to throw off their allegiance, and establish an independent state, of which Rochelle should be the capital. Richelieu bargained with the Dutch to furnish a fleet for subduing their protestant brethren, and the Dutch now fought as keenly for the catholic religion as they had lately done for the protestant. The English sent a fleet to the aid of the Rochellois, who for a year maintained a most obstinate siege against the French troops, commanded by the cardinal in person. They were at length forced to surrender; and Rochelle and all the other protestant cities of France were stripped of their privileges, and had their fortifications destroyed. Thus calvinism was for ever crushed in France.

3. Louis XIII., though a weak prince, saw his advantage in entering into all the great designs of his minister. Richelieu influenced the politics of all Europe. The power of Austria was attacked in Germany, Flanders, Spain, and Italy; and the talents of the minister were equally displayed in active war, in foreign negotiations, and in his domestic arrangements. Yet at this very time a formidable cabal was undermining him. Mary of Medici was jealous of the man she had raised, and the duke of Orleans, the king's brother, sought to supplant him in his power. Richelieu, with astonishing intrepidity of mind, repressed this conspiracy. Fortified by the king's authority, he seized the marshal de Marillac, one of his most dangerous enemies, at the head of his army, and tried and put him to death, by a lawless stretch of power. Orleans, apprehensive of a similar fate, fled the kingdom; and Mary of Medici, arrested and removed from court, ended her career of ambition in voluntary exile at Brussels. Orleans, supported by the duke de Montmorenci, attempted a rebellion; but their army was defeated, and Montmorenci executed for treason. The queen had taken

part with the enemies of the cardinal. He imprisoned her confessor, seized and examined her papers; and Anne of Austria was very near sharing the fate of Mary of Medici.

4. Amidst all this turbulence, both of foreign war and state cabal, Richelieu cultivated the pursuits of literature, encouraged the sciences, instituted the French Academy, and composed pieces for the theatre. The administration of Richelieu, though turbulent from faction and civil war, was, on the whole, extremely glorious for France, and the seeds were sown of the splendour of that monarchy in the succeeding age of Louis XIV. The death of this great minister, 1642, was soon after followed by that of his sovereign, Louis XIII., 1643.

LXII.—Spain under Philip III. and Philip IV.—Constitution of Portugal and of Spain.

1. From the death of Philip II. Spain declined in power, and, notwithstanding her great sources of wealth, the national finances were in the utmost disorder. Philip III. was forced to conclude a peace with the Dutch, and to restore to the house of Nassau its confiscated estates. With a weak and despicable policy, he expelled from his kingdom all the Moors, who were the most industrious of its inhabitants, 1610; and this depopulation, joined to that already produced by her American colonies, rendered Spain a lifeless and enervated mass.

2. The national weakness, and its disorders, increased under Philip IV., who, as spiritless as his father, was implicitly ruled by his minister Olivarez, as the former had been by the duke of Lerma. His reign was one continued series of miscarriages and defeats. The Dutch seized Brazil; the French invaded Artois; Catalonia revolted to France; and Portugal shook off its yoke, and became an independent kingdom.

3. No revolution was ever effected with such ease and celerity as that of Portugal. The people were disgusted with the rigorous and impolitic administration of Olivarez. The duke of Braganza, descended from the ancient kings of Portugal, had at this time the command of the army. Instigated by the ambition of his duchess, and seeing the spirit of the nation favourable to his views, he caused himself to be proclaimed king at Lisbon. The Spanish guards were attacked and routed, and the chief partisans of the

government put to death by the populace. All the principal towns followed the example of the capital, and soon after all the foreign settlements. From that era, 1640, Portugal became an independent sovereignty, after having been for 60 years an appanage of the kingdom of Spain.

4. The government of Portugal approached to an absolute monarchy. The consent of the states or *Cortes*, consisting of clergy, nobility, and commons, was formerly necessary to the imposition of taxes, and the settlement of the succession to the crown. But this assembly, never convoked but by the royal mandate, had now for a long time ceased to meet. The ordinary business of government was transacted by the king and his council of state, which was appointed by himself. The crown's revenue arose from its domains, including the family estates of Braganza, from the duties on exports and imports, from the taxes, and from a stated proportion of the gold brought from Brazil. The state of the commerce and manufactures of Portugal is extremely low; and though favoured by soil and climate, the agriculture of the kingdom is much neglected.

5. The reigns of Philip III. and IV. of Spain, though an era of national humiliation, derived some small lustre from the state of literature. Dramatic composition, poetry, and romance, and even history, were cultivated with great success. But these are in some sort the amusements of indolence, and this was the predominant character of the people. This character may have arisen from two sources—the torrent of wealth poured in from America retarded, in the lower classes, domestic industry and manufactures, while it increased the pride of the gentry, and made them disdain all occupation; and the despotism of the government is strongly repressive of all enterprise and activity in the people.

6. The constitution of Spain, of which the sovereignty was in ancient times elective, became that of an absolute monarchy. The crown is hereditary; though at different times, as in 1619 and 1713, there has been a new limitation made by the monarch of the succession. The *Cortes*, or states of the kingdom, limited in former times the power of the sovereign, but Charles V. reduced their authority to nothing, by depriving the nobility and clergy of their seat in those assemblies; the remaining members, the deputies of the towns, being entirely under the control of

the monarch. The king's council, or *conseja real*, is the organ of government ; but there is no department of the state which has any constitutional power to regulate the will of the prince.

LXIII.—*Affairs of Germany from the Abdication of Charles V. to the Peace of Westphalia.*

1. To preserve the connexion of the affairs of Germany with those of the other kingdoms of Europe, we must look back to the period of the abdication of Charles V., when the empire was distracted both by the political factions and quarrels of its independent princes, and the contending sects of the catholics, lutherans, and calvinists. Ferdinand attempted to reconcile these factions, and unite the three religions, but in vain. Maximilian II. had still less power to effect this object than his predecessor ; nor was the face of affairs at all changed during the succeeding reigns of Rodolphus II. and Matthias. A civil war of 30 years' duration reduced the empire to extremity. Under Ferdinand II., a zealous catholic, the protestant states of Bohemia, which had suffered under the government of Matthias, conferred their crown on the elector palatine ; and the emperor, in revenge, deprived him both of his crown and his electorate.

2. The protestant cause was declining fast in Germany, and every thing seemed to indicate success to the schemes of Ferdinand for its entire annihilation, when it received new vigour from the intervention of Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden. This great prince defeated the imperial generals, and carried the protestant banners triumphantly through Germany. The emperor was completely humbled, and the elector palatine on the eve of restoration to his dominions, when the heroic Gustavus was slain in the battle of Lutzen, 1632. The war was successfully prosecuted by the Swedish generals, while cardinal Richelieu harassed the house of Austria both in Germany and Spain.

3. In the succeeding reign of Ferdinand III., the protestants of Germany found the most active support both from the Swedes and the French ; and the emperor being forced to conclude the peace of Westphalia, 1648, these powers dictated its terms. By this celebrated treaty, all disputes were settled between the contending princes of the empire and the contending religions. The Swedes were indemnified for the charges of the war, and acquired

Pomerania, Stettin, Wismar, &c., and their sovereign the dignity of prince of the empire; the palatine family was restored to its chief possessions; the king of France made landgrave of Alsace; and an equal establishment decreed of the three religions. This salutary peace laid the foundation of the future greatness and prosperity of the German empire.

LXIV.—*France under Louis XIV.*

1. On the death of Louis XIII., 1663, his son Louis XIV. succeeded to the throne in the fifth year of his age. Europe, as we have seen, was in a most turbulent state; and France, under the administration of Richelieu, acted a conspicuous part in exciting those general commotions. The queen-mother, Anne of Austria, appointed regent by the states, chose for her minister the cardinal Mazarin, an Italian, and from that circumstance odious to the people. The Spaniards, taking advantage of the king's minority and the popular discontents, made an attack on Champagne; but they were defeated in a series of engagements by the great Condé; and the marshal de Turenne shared with him the palm of glory. The peace of Westphalia composed those differences.

2. At this very time the commotions of the *Fronde* broke out in Paris. The jealousy felt by the nobility of Mazarin's power, the unpopularity of his measures, the disorder of the finances, and the oppression of new taxes, inflamed the nation; and the intrigues of the coadjutor, afterwards cardinal de Retz, blew up this flame into a civil war. The parliament of Paris took part with the rebels, who were aided by the prince of Conti, the dukes of Longueville and Bouillon, and the chief nobility. The queen and the royal family removed to St. Germain's and the ministerial party besieged Paris. Turenne, who at first supported them, was gained over by the rebels. The women, who have always their part in the disturbances of France, had a conspicuous share in those of the *Fronde*. A short pacification ensued; but the imprudent violence of Mazarin soon renewed the disorders. At length the parliament of Paris assumed the right of banishing this unpopular minister, who retired to the imperial dominions, though his influence continued still to regulate the measures of state.

3. A change ensued on the king's coming of age, 1652. De Retz and Orleans, the chief promoters of the rebel-

lion, were banished, and Mazarin resumed his station as minister. Condé had joined the Spaniards in an attack on the French Netherlands, but was overmatched by Turenne, who revenged this insult by the taking of Dunkirk, and several fortified towns under the Spanish government. Dunkirk was, by convention with Cromwell, ceded to the English, and afterwards sold back to France, as we have seen, by Charles II.

4. The war with Spain was ended 1659, by the peace of the Pyrenees. Many cessions were made on both sides, but France kept Roussillon and part of Artois. It was stipulated that Louis XIV. should marry the infanta, daughter of Philip IV., but should renounce all right that might thence open to the crown of Spain.

5. The treaty of the Pyrenees gave peace to the south of Europe; and the wars in the north between Sweden, Poland, and Denmark, which arose after the abdication of Christiana of Sweden, were terminated in the year following by the treaty of Oliva. Christiana, a singular, but not a great character, held the sceptre of Sweden for 22 years after the death of her father, Gustavus Adolphus; till at length, tired of the cares of government, and affecting a passion for literature and philosophy, she resigned the crown in 1654, to her cousin Charles X.; an example which was followed soon after by Casimir king of Poland, though after an honourable reign, and for a better reason, age and sickness.

6. Mazarin died in 1661, and Louis XIV. entered on a vigorous and splendid career. The finances, which from the time of Henry IV. had been in extreme disorder, were admirably regulated by Colbert; and the commerce and manufactures of the kingdom, wisely encouraged by government, were soon in the most flourishing situation. The canal of Languedoc joined the bay of Biscay and the Mediterranean; the principal sea-ports were enlarged and fortified; and the internal police of the kingdom was regularly and strictly enforced. The arms of France aided at the same time England against the Dutch, Germany against the Turks, and Portugal against Spain.

7. On the death of Philip IV., Louis, on pretence that Spain had failed in payment of the dowry of his queen, besieged and took Lisle, with several other fortified towns of Flanders, and in the next campaign made himself master of Franche-Comté. The sovereign marched with

his armies, but the glory of these conquests was owing to Turenne and Vauban. The triple alliance formed by England, Holland, and Sweden, checked this career, and brought about the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1668, by which Louis, though he retained Flanders, restored Franche-Comté, and confirmed the peace of the Pyrenees.

8. The strength and prosperity of the kingdom continued to increase under the able administration of Colbert and Louvois. The civil factions of Holland, between the stadtholder and the party of the De Wits, tempted Louis to undertake the conquest of that country; and England, Germany, and Sweden, favoured his views. He overran the provinces of Utrecht, Overysse, and Guelderland, and advanced almost to the gates of Amsterdam, when the Dutch inundated the country by letting in the sea, and the French were forced to retreat.

9. The confederate powers now became jealous of the ascendancy of France; and the prince of Orange had sufficient influence with England, and both branches of the house of Austria, to obtain their alliance in aid of the republic. The arms of Louis, however, still continued to be successful, and the peace concluded at Nimeguen, in 1678, was much to the honour of France. Franche-Comté was assured as a part of her dominions, and Spain allowed her right by conquest to a great proportion of the Netherlands.

10. Notwithstanding the peace, Louis with the most culpable insincerity, seized Strasburg, and secretly took part with the Hungarians and Turks in their attack on the imperial dominions. Vienna must have fallen into the hands of the Turks, had it not been seasonably relieved by the victorious arms of John Sobieski, king of Poland, 1683.

11. One of the weakest and most impolitic measures of Louis XIV. was the revocation of the edict of Nantes, granted by Henry IV. for the toleration of the protestants. While their worship was suppressed, their churches demolished, and their ministers banished, the protestant laity were forbidden, under the most rigorous penalties, to quit the kingdom, 1685. France, however, by this measure lost above 500,000 of her most industrious and useful subjects; and the name of Louis XIV. was execrated over a great part of Europe. It was not long after this time that a similar excess of intolerant bigotry precipitated James

II. from the throne of Britain, and forced him to seek an asylum from the monarch of France.

12. William prince of Orange, the inveterate enemy of Louis, brought about the league of Augsburg, 1686; and the war was renewed with France by Germany, Spain, England, and Holland. The French arms were still successful. Luxemburg defeated William in the battles of Steenkirk and Nerwinden; Noailles was victorious in Spain; and an army of 100,000 French ravaged the Palatinate, and took many of the most important towns on the Rhine. This was the crisis of the glory of Louis, whose fortunes were to sustain the most mortifying reverse.

13. Those various and most extensive military enterprises, however flattering to the pride of the monarch, had been attended with enormous expense, and no solid advantage to the nation. The finances had fallen into disorder after the death of Colbert; a peace was absolutely necessary; and by the treaty of Ryswick, concluded in 1697, Louis restored to Spain all the conquests made in the last two wars, several towns to the emperor, the duchy of Lorraine to its duke, and acknowledged the right of William to the crown of England.

14. The succession to the kingdom of Spain, on the expected death of Charles II. without issue, was now the object of political intrigue. The emperor and the king of France had the only natural right of succession; but William III. of England, from the dread of such an increase of power to either, proposed a treaty of partition of the Spanish dominions, at home and abroad, between the elector of Bavaria, the dauphin, and the emperor's second son. Charles II. chose rather to make his own destination, and appointed by will that the duke of Anjou, second son of the dauphin, should inherit Spain; on whose death without issue, it should devolve on the archduke Charles, youngest son of the emperor.

15. On the death of Charles, the duke of Anjou succeeded to the throne of Spain, in virtue of this settlement. The emperor, the king of England, and the Dutch, proposed to separate from his crown the Spanish dominions in Italy. In this enterprise prince Eugene, son of the count de Soissons, commanded the imperial troops, an illustrious renegade from France, of great prowess and military skill.

16. James II. of England died in 1701, at St. Ger-

main's, and Louis gave mortal offence to that government by acknowledging the title of his son. On the death of king William in the year following, war was declared by England, Holland, and the empire, against France and Spain. Louis XIV. was now in the decline of life. He had lost the ablest of his ministers and his greatest generals. The finances of the kingdom were exhausted. The armies of his enemies were commanded by Eugene and the duke of Marlborough, the ablest generals of the age, and supported by the treasures of the united powers. Savoy and Portugal joined this formidable confederacy, to overwhelm both branches of the house of Bourbon, and place the emperor's son on the throne of Spain.

17. Marlborough took Venlo, Ruremonde, and Liege, and, together with Eugene, defeated Tallard and Marsin, with the elector of Bavaria, in the signal battle of Blenheim, 1740. England and Holland attacked Spain by sea and land. Catalonia and Valencia were subdued in six weeks; and Gibraltar, taken by the English, has ever since remained with them. In the battle of Ramillies, Marlborough defeated Villeroy, and left 20,000 dead on the field. The contest, at first doubtful in Italy, ended alike disastrously for the house of Bourbon. The archduke Charles was in the meantime proclaimed king at Madrid; and Philip V. had serious thoughts of abandoning Spain, and establishing his dominion in America. But the successes of the duke of Berwick, natural son of James II., recovered for a while his desponding spirit, and even prompted his grandfather Louis to avenge himself on England, by aiding the bold but desperate enterprise of establishing the pretender James on the throne of Britain.

18. But France and Spain were daily losing ground. The pope had acknowledged the title of the archduke Charles; the English seized the Mediterranean islands; and Louis, fallen from all his proud pretensions, humbly entreated a peace, which was refused, unless on the condition of his dethroning his grandson with his own arms. He maintained for a while this unequal contest, and was at length forced to propose terms equally humiliating; the cession of all his conquests in the Netherlands and on the Rhine; the acknowledgment of the archduke's title to the crown of Spain; and a promise to give no aid to his grandson; but these were refused, and the inhuman

condition still insisted on, that he should himself assist in dethroning his grandson. A last exertion was made in Spain under the duke of Vendôme, at the head of a prodigious army; and the victory obtained by the French at Villa-vitiosa, restored Philip V. to the throne of Spain. His competitor, the archduke, soon after became emperor, on the death of his elder brother.

19. The intrigues of the cabinet of queen Anne, and the coming in of a tory ministry, changed the politics of Europe. It was resolved to make peace with France and Spain, and the treaty was concluded at Utrecht, 1713. It was stipulated that Philip, king of Spain, should renounce all eventual right to the crown of France, as his brother should to the crown of Spain; the Dutch obtained an extension of frontier; the emperor a great part of Spanish Flanders; the English gained from Spain, Gibraltar and Minorca, and from France, Acadia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's Bay; with one term most humbling to the latter, the demolition of the harbour of Dunkirk. In the following year a peace was concluded at Rastadt between France and the empire.

20. The conclusion of this peace, after an honourable war, was the most memorable event in the reign of queen Anne, if we except the union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland, 1706, which was brought about by the negotiation of commissioners mutually chosen, to secure the rights of each kingdom in the best manner for their mutual benefit. It was stipulated that they should be represented by one parliament (sect. 59, § 8), but that each kingdom should retain its own laws and its established religion, and that they should have the same privileges with respect to commerce. The succession to the crown was limited to the house of Hanover. Queen Anne died 30th July, 1714, and Louis XIV. on 1st September, 1715, in the 78th year of his age; a prince of great vigour of mind, of good talents, though unimproved by education, of dignified yet amiable manners, and whose greatest fault was his inordinate ambition, to which he sacrificed the real interests of his people. It was his highest honour, that he discerned and recompensed every species of merit; and France was in his time equally illustrious by the great military talents of her generals, and by the splendour of literature and the arts and sciences.

LXV.—*Of the Constitution of France under the Monarchy.*

1. It is necessary for understanding the history of France, that we should have some acquaintance with its former monarchical constitution ; and we shall very briefly trace the progress of its government under the different races of its sovereigns. The regal prerogative was, under the Merovingian princes, extremely limited. (See sect. 2, 3.) The general assembly of the nation had the right of electing the sovereign, and the power of legislation. Under the Carlovingian race, the authority acquired by Pepin and Charlemagne, sunk to nothing in the hands of their weak posterity : and though the crown had ceased to be elective, the regal dignity was a mere shadow. The power of the state had passed into the hands of a turbulent aristocracy, ever at variance among themselves, and uniting only to abase the crown, and oppress the people.

2. Under the third Capetian race, the crown acquired more weight, and many of the sovereigns exerted a proper spirit in restraining the power, and punishing the lawless outrages of the nobles. It was to balance the weight of the aristocracy, that Philip the Fair introduced the third estate into the national assemblies, which for above four centuries had consisted only of the nobles and clergy. The chief power of the state began now to shift to the scale of the monarch. The national assembly interfered rather to ratify than to decree ; and in the 15th century the right of the legislation was understood to reside wholly in the crown. The right of taxation seemed to follow of course ; and the assemblies or states-general were now rarely convened, and from the reign of Louis XIII. entirely laid aside.

3. But another power gradually arose in the state, which in some measure supplied their function in limiting the royal prerogative. The parliaments were originally nothing more than the chief courts of justice in the territory where they were established. The parliament of Paris had naturally a higher respect and dignity than those of the provinces, and acquiring a right of appeal from their decrees, was considered as the paramount jurisdiction, and the depository of the laws of the kingdom. The sovereigns of France, on first assuming the powers of legislation and taxation, produced their edicts to be re-

gistered in that court, and frequently consulted with its members on momentous affairs of state, as in questions of peace, war, or alliance. Thus the nation began to regard the parliament of Paris, as a body which shared the powers of government with the monarch: and in the latter reigns, the parliament availed itself of that general opinion, and made a bold stand in opposing any arbitrary stretches of the king's authority, by refusing to verify and register his edicts.

4. But as this power of the parliament was in reality a usurpation, it was constantly a subject of dispute. The members of this court were in no sense the representatives of the people, or vested with any portion of the constitutional authority of the national assemblies. They were in the king's nomination, removable by him at pleasure, and even subject to entire annihilation as a body at his command. Nay, without so violent a remedy, the sovereign could at any time frustrate their opposition to his will, by appearing personally in the hall of parliament, and commanding his edict to be registered.

5. Yet even a power thus easily defeasible had its advantages to the state, and operated as a very considerable restraint on the royal authority. Considering itself as the guardian of the public liberty, it remonstrated against all arbitrary encroachments of the crown, and by giving alarm to the nation, furnished an opposition sufficiently powerful to obtain its ends. The provincial parliaments, although they likewise registered the royal edicts, never assumed any similar authority. They were no more than the chief courts of civil judicature.

6. The king of France was therefore to be considered as an absolute monarch, but whose authority was in some degree limited by the consuetudinary regulations of the state, and could not easily become entirely despotic and tyrannical. The crown was hereditary, but could not descend to a female, nor to a natural son. The royal revenue was partly fixed and partly arbitrary. The former comprehended the royal domains, the duties on wines and salt, the land-tax, capitation-tax, and gift of the clergy; the latter arose from all other taxes which the monarch thought fit to impose, and from the sale of offices. Most of these duties were leased out to the farmers-general.

7. The Gallican church, though catholic, and acknowledging the spiritual authority of the pope, had greatly

abridged his ancient prerogatives within the kingdom. The assembly of the church, in 1682, declared that no temporal sovereign could be deposed by the pope, or subjects absolved from their allegiance: it decreed the subjection of the pope to the councils of the church, and denied his infallibility when in opposition to the canons of those councils. The pope had no power to levy money in France without the royal licence. In short, the ecclesiastical authority was in all respects subordinate to the civil.

LXVI.—*Of Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy, and Charles XII. King of Sweden.*

1. Two most illustrious characters adorned the north of Europe in the latter part of the age of Louis XIV., Peter the Great of Muscovy, and Charles XII. of Sweden.

Russia is said to have received the light of Christianity in the 10th century, but its history is utterly unknown till the middle of the 15th. At that period John Basilowitz redeemed the empire from its subjection to the Tartars, and extended its limits. His successors maintained a considerable splendour as sovereigns; but their dominions were uncultivated, and their subjects barbarians. Alexis Michaelowitz, father of Peter the Great, was the first who published a code of laws. It was not till the end of the 16th century that Siberia was added to the empire, which till then was bounded by the limits of Europe.

2. Peter, the youngest son of the Emperor Alexis, became master of the empire in 1689, by setting aside a weak elder brother, and banishing a factious sister, who had seized the government. Utterly uneducated, his youth had been spent in debauchery; but his new situation immediately displayed his talents, and gave birth to the wisest plans for the improvement of a barbarous people. The army and navy demanded his first attention. He began by breaking the turbulent militia of the Strelitzes, and by degrees formed a regular army of 12,000 men, on the strictest model of discipline. He employed some Dutchmen to build a small fleet, and made the first experiment of his arms in taking Azof from the Turks, 1696.

3. Having gained the little instruction he possessed from foreigners, Peter resolved to travel in search of knowledge. Appointing Le Fort, an able Genevese, his ambassador, he travelled as a private person in his suite through Germany to Holland, and studied the art of ship-

building, by working in the docks with his own hands. Thence he passed to England, and in a similar manner acquired the knowledge of every art fitted for the improvement of his kingdom. The relative sciences were cultivated with the same ardour and success; and in 16 months he returned to Moscow to reduce those important acquirements into practice.

4. Regiments were raised and trained to exercise on the German model; the finances arranged and systemized; the church reformed by new canons and regulations; the patriarchate abolished; and a much-abused civil and criminal jurisdiction taken from the clergy. It was necessary to carry this reform even to the abolition of the national dress, and the suppression of ancient usages and habits of life; innovations reluctantly submitted to, but enforced by absolute power.

5. While this great genius was thus employed in new-modelling and polishing a barbarous empire, a competitor arose to dispute with him the sovereignty of the north, and divide the admiration of Europe. Charles XII. succeeded to the throne of Sweden, 1695, at 15 years of age; a prince whose singular heroism of character and extraordinary achievements have ranked him with the greatest conquerors of antiquity. The situation of his kingdom speedily brought his genius into display. Russia, Poland, and Denmark, joined in a league to seize and share his dominions. The attack was begun by the Danes on Holstein, while the king of Poland invaded Livonia, and the czar Ingria. Charles immediately landed an army on Zealand, at the gates of Copenhagen; and in six weeks forced the Dane to purchase the safety of his capital and kingdom, by laying down his arms, and making full indemnity to the duke of Holstein. The Swedish monarch now hastened into Ingria, and at the battle of Narva, defeated 60,000 of the Russians, and took 30,000 prisoners. Such was the first campaign of Charles XII., then a boy of seventeen.

6. Poland was destined to receive a yet more humiliating chastisement. Charles reduced Courland and Lithuania, penetrated into the heart of the kingdom, and subdued the capitals of Warsaw and Cracow. He then assembled the states, declared king Augustus deposed, and signified his pleasure that Stanislaus, his own dependent, should be elected sovereign of Poland. The factions of

the kingdom aided this revolution, and the will of Charles was complied with. The deposed king retired to his electoral dominions of Saxony.

7. A negotiation begun with the czar was abruptly terminated by Charles, who declared he would only negotiate at Moscow; and entering the Russian dominions with 45,000 men, he was in the way of making good his threat, when he was induced, by a treacherous promise of aid from the Cossacks, to march through the Ukraine in the dead of winter. His army was wasted by fatigue and famine, when he was encountered by the czar at Pultowa; and the fate of Russia, Sweden, and Poland, hung upon that battle. Charles was entirely defeated; 9,000 Swedes fell in the field, and 14,000 were taken prisoners, 1709. Augustus was restored to the throne of Poland, and the czar took possession of Finland and Livonia.

8. With the wreck of his army, reduced to 1800 men, Charles retreated into the Turkish dominions, and formed a camp near Bender. He endeavoured to prevail with the grand seignior to arm against the czar, and succeeded after a long negotiation. 200,000 Turks took the field; and the czar's army, infinitely inferior in number, was surrounded, and, after ineffectual resistance, forced to capitulate to the grand vizier. The news of this capitulation was death to all the hopes of Charles; and his subsequent conduct seems the result of frenzy. The grand seignior having intimated his desire that the Swedes should quit his territories, Charles fortified his camp, and declared he would defend it to the last extremity. After every means ineffectually tried to make him alter this resolution, he was attacked by the Turkish army, and taken fighting sword in hand amidst the massacre of his troops.

9. The czar and the king of Denmark were in the meantime tearing Sweden to pieces. Charles returned in disguise with two of his officers to his own dominions, and immediately conceived the design of wresting Norway from Denmark. Failing in the outset of this enterprise, he was persuaded by Gortz, his prime minister, to engage in another, the dethroning of George II., seizing a part of his continental dominions, and placing the pretender James on the throne of England. This project was concerted between Gortz and Alberoni, prime minister of Philip V. The czar joined in the scheme, and made peace with Sweden; but an unforeseen event broke all their

measures. In besieging the Norwegian fortress of Frederickshall, Charles XII. was killed by a cannon-ball, 11th December, 1718.

10. Sweden gained by the death of Charles a reformation of her government, and a salutary limitation of the arbitrary power of the sovereign. His sister Ulrica succeeded to the throne, and raised to it her husband, Frederick, landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. The States made peace with all the hostile powers. The czar was now engaged in a war with Persia, in the view of obtaining the command and commerce of the Caspian. This object he accomplished, and gained, by cession from the Sophi, three provinces of the Persian empire.

11. Peter the Great died, 28th January, 1725, and was succeeded by the czarina Catharine, formerly a Livonian captive, but who possessed merit equal to her elevated situation. His only son, Alexis Petrowitz, had been condemned to lose his life for treason; and the mode of his death, which immediately followed his condemnation, is at this moment unknown. Russia owes to Peter the Great all those beneficial improvements which have raised her, within the period of a century, from barbarism and obscurity to the highest rank among the powers of Europe.

LXVII.—*A View of the Progress of Science and Literature in Europe, from the end of the Fifteenth to the end of the Seventeenth Century.*

1. We have seen how much literature and the sciences were indebted to the art of printing for their advancement and dissemination towards the end of the 15th century. (Sect 34, § 12.) From that period classical learning, criticism, poetry, and history, made a rapid progress in most of the kingdoms of Europe. Philosophy did not keep pace. The dogmas of Aristotle had possession of the schools down to the 17th century, and had engrafted themselves even on the doctrines of theology. It required a superior genius to dissipate this mist of error, and break those fetters on all advancement in useful science; and such was the great Bacon, Lord Verulam, the most profound philosopher, and perhaps the most universal genius that any age has produced. We find in his works an estimate of the actual attainments in all the sciences, a catalogue of the desiderata in each department, and a detail of the methods best suited to prosecute improvement and new

discoveries. In fine, we owe to Bacon the sure method of advancing in knowledge by experiment and the observation of nature, instead of system and conjecture.

2. The philosophy of Bacon produced its effect only by slow degrees. Gassendi, though he exposed the doctrines of Aristotle, was still a theorist, and attempted to revive the atomic system of Epicurus. Des Cartes followed in the same track, and reared a whimsical theory of the universe, produced, as he supposed, by the fortuitous combination of atoms, moving in vortices through the immensity of space; a theory recommended by the ingenuity with which it was supported, and its apparently solving many of the phenomena of nature. [Des Cartes, however, is the first who laid down the laws of motion; especially that all bodies persist in their present state of rest or uniform rectilineal motion till affected by some force. The most erroneous part of his mechanical philosophy is contained in some propositions as to the collision of bodies, so palpably incompatible with obvious experience, that it seems truly wonderful he could ever have adopted them. But he was led into these paradoxes by one of the arbitrary hypotheses which always governed him. (*Hallam's Lit. Europe*, chap. viii. § 41.)] Copernicus had, a century before, published his system of the planets, which, though condemned by the church, was received by Des Cartes and the best philosophers.

3. Galileo, in 1609, constructed telescopes, (sect. 34, § 5,) and discovered the satellites of the larger planets, and their motions, for which he was rewarded by imprisonment, as a supporter of the Copernican heresy. Kepler investigated the laws which regulate the motions of the planets, and the analogy between their distances from the sun and periodical revolutions. The discoveries in astronomy led to improvements in navigation, and a great advancement of geometry in all its branches. Napier, in 1614, abridged calculation by the invention of logarithms. The Torricellian experiment determined the weight of the atmosphere. In 1616, Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood.

4. The Royal Society, which originated from private meetings of the English philosophers, was incorporated by Charles II. 1662, and has greatly contributed to the advancement of the sciences and useful arts. The Royal Academy of Sciences was instituted in 1666, by Louis

XIV.; and similar institutions were founded in most of the countries of Europe; among which there is a communication of science, and a laudable emulation excited by the publication of their transactions.

5. In the end of the 17th century arose the immortal Newton, who, by exhausting the most important discoveries of the laws of nature, has rendered it impossible for posterity to eclipse his fame. He had discovered, before the age of 24, the theory of universal gravitation, a principle which solves the chief phenomena of nature, and connects and regulates the whole machine of the universe. His theory of light and colours is the foundation of the whole science of optics, and his *Principia* the basis and elements of all philosophy.

6. Locke, the contemporary of Newton, successfully applied Lord Bacon's mode of investigation to the study of the human mind; and, utterly rejecting the system of the old philosophers, examined the soul by attending to its operations. From the simple fact, that all knowledge is progressive, and that an infant gains its ideas gradually, through the medium of its senses, he drew the general conclusion, that there are no innate ideas in the mind, but all are either immediate perceptions, conveyed by the senses, or acts of the mind reflecting on those perceptions; a conclusion which has been obstinately controverted, chiefly by drawing from it false consequences, but which has never yet been shaken.

7. The progress of literature in the 16th and 17th centuries was equally remarkable with that of science and philosophy. Trissino was the first of the moderns who composed an epic poem in the language of his country, *L'Italia liberata da Goti*, and the first Italian who wrote a regular tragedy, *Sophonisba*. Of much superior merit to the epic poem of Trissino, is the *Lusiad* of the Portuguese Camões, a work abounding in passages of high poetic beauty, and displaying a sublime imagination. In the end of the 16th century, Spain produced the *Araucana* of Ercilla, an epic poem of great inequality of merit, but frequently exhibiting novelty of figures and bold conceptions. The subject is a revolt of the Peruvians against the Spaniards.

8. But the principal epic poems of this age are the *Orlando Furioso* of Ariosto, and the *Gierusalemme Liberata* of Tasso; the former a work most irregular in its plan,

most unconnected and desultory in its conduct, most extravagant and absurd in the characters of its persons, but displaying alternately every excellence of poetry in the various departments of the descriptive, comic, satiric, moral, and sublime. The *Gicrusalemme* of Tasso, of a regular plan and perfect polish in its structure, [and allegorical in its composition,] has been frequently brought in comparison with the equally high finished poem of the *Æneid*; nor does the Italian suffer much in the comparison. There is a romantic charm both in the incidents and characters of his poem, which must ever render it a favourite with all readers of genuine taste.

9. From the time of Tasso, the genius of epic poetry lay dormant for a century, till the days of Milton; for the *Fairy Queen* of Spenser is rather a romantic allegory than an epic poem. The *Paradise Lost*, compared with the great poems of antiquity, is more irregular, and less perfect, as a whole, than the *Iliad*, *Æneid*, and *Odyssey*, but exhibits, in detached parts, more of the sublime and beautiful than all of them. It has been well remarked, that the inequality of this poem arises, in a great measure, from the nature of the subject, of which some parts are the most lofty that can enter into the human mind, and others could only have been supported by a laborious elegance and polish, which the author's genius could not stoop to bestow.

10. Lyric poetry was cultivated in the 16th century, in Italy, France, and England, but with no high success. The lesser poems of Ariosto and Tasso have no tincture of the genius displayed in their greater works. Chiabrera is perhaps the only lyric poet of this period that merits distinction. In France, Ronsard and Bellay imitated Petrarch with all his false wit, but without his passion. Marot, however, in the naiveté and easy vein of his humour, is justly accounted the master of La Fontaine. In the beginning of the 17th century, French versification received a considerable polish from the compositions of Racan, and yet more from those of Malherbe: and towards the end of that century lyric poetry was cultivated with high success by La Fare, Chapelle [whose real name was L'Huillier] and Bachaumont, Chaulieu, and Gresset.

11. The English lyric poetry of the 16th century, of [Sackville], Spenser, Surrey, Harrington, Sydney, and even Shakspeare, is harsh and inharmonious; nor is much

improvement discernible till the time of Cowley and Waller. The merit of Cowley as a lyric poet was too highly prized in his own age, and is underrated in ours. With all his false wit, pedantry, and obscurity, he is often both sublime and pathetic, in no moderate degree. The lyric ode in the third book of the *Davidis* has few parallels in the English language. As a prose writer, Cowley shines in that age with superior excellence. Waller is more polished and harmonious than any of the preceding or contemporary poets, but his wit is quaint, and his elevation too frequently bombast.

12. Dryden, in the end of the 17th century, carried lyric poetry to its highest perfection. His ode on St. Cecilia's day, surpasses all the lyric compositions both of antiquity and modern times. He shines conspicuously as a satirist, possessing the keen and caustic wit without the indelicacy of Juvenal or Horace. His versions from Chaucer and Boccaccio are easy and spirited, and display a happy talent for poetic narrative. His numerous dramatic pieces, though exhibiting both invention and poetical beauty, are deficient in true passion and in the just delineation of character.

13. It was not till the end of the 16th century that the drama in Europe began to furnish a rational entertainment. At that period Lope de Vega and Calderona in Spain, and Shakspeare in England, produced those pieces which, though irregular and stained with blemishes, are at this day the admiration of their countrymen. The Spanish plays of that age have been a rich mine for succeeding dramatists, both among the French, Italians, and English. The merits of Shakspeare are familiar to every person of taste. Ignorant of the rules of his art, he is the pure child of nature, and thus exhibits often her caprices and absurdities; but these are redeemed by the most transcendent beauties. The old English drama is, with all its irregularities, incomparably superior to the modern, both in touching the passions, and in displaying just views of human character. The persons are more discriminated by various and appropriate features, and the nicer shades of nearly resembling characters are thus more distinctly marked. The mixture of the comic and tragic in the same plot, though condemned by modern practice, is a great source of pleasure in the pieces of Shakspeare and his contemporaries; nor is there any thing in such a mix

ture but what is consonant to nature. To a person of true taste it will be found often to heighten, by contrast, the capital emotion to be excited.

14. The compositions for the French stage in the end of the 17th century are strictly conformable to [the Aristotelian] dramatic rules, and many of those pieces are models of a correct and polished taste. The morality of the French drama of that age and the next is in general purer than ours; but their pieces are deficient in the nice delineation of character, and in the power of exciting the passions. Corneille and Racine brought the French tragedy to its highest elevation, as Moliere the comedy. Corneille has more grandeur and sublimity than his rival, who excels him in the tender and pathetic. The comedies of Moliere, highly amusing in the present time, were more particularly valuable in the age when they were written, and had a sensible effect in correcting its prevailing follies—the pedantry of the ladies, the ignorance and quackery of the physicians, and the pride and arrogance of the French noblesse. The last of the eminent dramatists, who adorned France in the 17th century was the elder Crebillon, who drew many sublime and impassioned scenes from the source of terror, and who, in all his works, was as eminently the friend of virtue as his worthless son has been the pander of vice.

15. The most eminent historians of the 16th century are De Thou, Davila, and Machiavel. De Thou [whose Latinized name is *Thuanus*,] has written the annals of his own time, from 1545 to 1607, with great judgment, and in most elegant Latin composition. The history of Davila, “The Annals of the Civil Wars of France in the time of the League,” though the work of a partisan, is composed with no common degree of candour and impartiality. Machiavel wrote, in the beginning of the 16th century, the “History of Florence,” of which the style is classical and the matter well arranged, but too much interrupted by reflections and political discussions. In the 17th century Bentivoglio composed his “History of the Civil Wars of Flanders,” with the most accurate knowledge of his subject, perspicuity of narrative, and eloquence of style. Among the English historians in the beginning of that period Raleigh is the most distinguished, though his “History of the World” is, in point of style, inferior to the judgment shown in the arrangement of the matter.

In the latter part of the 17th century, Clarendon's "History of the Rebellion" is a work of the highest merit, whether we consider the authenticity of its facts, the deep knowledge of human nature displayed in the delineation of the characters, or the grave and manly eloquence of the style. If, in the opposition of political opinions, he has been deemed too partial in the defence of his sovereign, even his adversaries have admitted his perfect integrity, and entire conviction of the rectitude of the cause which he supports.

MODERN HISTORY.

(Continued.)

PART THIRD.

I.—*France from the Death of Louis XIV., 1715, to the Peace of Vienna 1738.*

1. The splendid reign of Louis XIV. was clouded towards its close by severe domestic calamity: within the space of eleven months, the dauphin his son, the duke of Burgundy, and his grandson the duke of Bretagne, had died, leaving only the duke of Berry, and an infant of delicate constitution, to intercept the claims of his nephew, the duke of Orleans. These strange events, which occurred during the years 1711 and 1712, gave rise to suspicions prejudicial to the reputation of the duke of Orleans, which seemed strengthened by the death of the duke of Berry (May 1714): but the duke (although addicted to immoral pleasures) seems to have possessed too generous a heart for such base deeds. The dauphin lived to become king, and survive the duke himself many years. At this time the public mind was much distracted by religious controversies; a mystical religion became the vogue, which, by subtle distinction and grave prudery, paved the road to infidelity and atheism.

2. On the demise of Louis XIV., his great grandson Louis XV. succeeded to the crown, in the sixth year of his age. The nation evinced the confidence they reposed in the duke of Orleans, by willingly acceding to the decree of the parliament, which, contrary to the will of the late king, had created him regent with all the plenitude of power.

3. The first object of the regent, on assuming the reins of government, was to maintain peace with all foreign states; this policy was rendered doubly necessary, the kingdom being burdened by a national debt (which alone amounted to 2,000,000,000 livres) and surrounded by jealous neighbours, whose mortified pride only awaited a fitting opportunity to recover what the victorious Louis had taken from them in the late wars. The regent now wisely determined to form an alliance with England and Austria; in the first case the advantages were reciprocal, for England had already, by the treaty of Utrecht, undertaken to secure the crown to the regent, should Louis XV. die without issue, which rendered it no difficult task for the duke to comply with the wishes of the British ministry, by ceasing to encourage the designs of the pretender.

4. The regent's endeavours to restore the credit of the nation and lighten its burdens, were frustrated by the deeply laid schemes of the celebrated Spanish minister, Alberoni, a man of consummate talent, who had raised himself from the lowest offices in the church to the cardinalate, and whose influence now predominated in the Spanish court. In order to recover the Italian provinces, which had been detached from the Spanish crown since the treaty of Utrecht, cardinal Alberoni entertained the project of placing the pretender on the British throne, and securing the regency of France to his own king, by the downfall of the duke of Orleans; to which end he endeavoured to secure the aid of Russia and Sweden.

5. Since the treaty of Utrecht, much animosity had existed between the courts of Austria and Spain, the former being jealous of the occupation of the Spanish throne by Philip, and the latter at the dismemberment of its dominions without an adequate recompense. Matters now wore a serious aspect: a conspiracy to deprive the duke of Orleans of the regency was discovered at Paris, which led the regent to the immediate adoption of measures calculated to thwart Alberoni's projects; in furtherance of which a triple alliance was entered into between France and England, and Holland. But the ambitious cardinal was not to be deterred, especially as his schemes, directed more immediately against Austria, became doubly alluring, on account of the Turkish war, in which she was at this time involved, which necessarily employed the greater part of her army on the other side of Europe.

6. Spain, with no small degree of treachery, succeeded in wresting the island of Sardinia from Austria, and that of Sicily from the duke of Savoy. These proceedings led to the admission of Austria as a party to the alliance already formed between France, England, and Holland, for the purpose of settling the existing differences between the emperor and Spain, upon the following basis:—That the emperor should renounce all claims to the Spanish crown in favour of Philip, while Spain, in accordance with the treaty of Utrecht, should surrender the duchy of Milan and the kingdom of Naples to the emperor: that the duke of Savoy should yield Sicily to Austria, receiving in exchange the island of Sardinia from Spain: and that the reversions of the duchies of Parma and Placentia, and the grand duchy of Florence, should be secured to Don Carlos (the eldest son of Philip by his second marriage), to be holden as male fiefs under the emperor. Although these terms were highly favourable to the interests of Spain, the court of Madrid, elated by recent successes, affected to be far from pleased with them, and nothing short of the superior prowess of France and England, could have forced Philip to sign the articles of the quadruple alliance, which took place January 26th, 1720, and was followed by the disgrace and instant dismissal of the favourite Spanish minister, cardinal Alberoni.

7. From an apparent desire to lighten the nation's burden, the regent was induced to adopt the unfortunate Mississippi scheme projected by John Law, a Scotchman, for the purpose of reducing the national debt, which, after the infatuation had subsided, produced consequences of the most alarming kind; public credit became annihilated, and the nation thrown into a state of feverish excitement (1719).

8. A momentary stagnation was put to public affairs by the demise of the regent, the duke of Orleans, who died suddenly in a fit of apoplexy, December 1723. His unprincipled tutor, the Abbe Dubois, whom he had elevated to the rank of cardinal of Rome, and prime minister of France, died four months previously.

9. Louis XV. having attained his majority now reigned in person; he appointed the duke of Bourbon Condé to the office of prime minister, which he occupied but for a short time. Cardinal Fleury, who had been the king's preceptor, next filled the place (for the title of prime mi-

nister was abolished.) Fleury was a man of narrow and confined ideas ; his influence with his master was productive of pernicious consequences, as tending to increase that indolence and irresolution which Louis XV. always manifested.

10. As disaffection still existed between Austria and Spain, a congress met at Cambray (1724) under the auspices of France and England, for the purpose of reconciling the two courts, but without effect. In 1725, another but more private attempt, undertaken by the duke de Ripperda, Dutch minister to the court of Madrid, met with better success : secret articles were signed at Vienna, which had for their object the union of the Austrian and Spanish dominions under one sovereign. The ruling powers of France and England felt not a little annoyed that such an agreement had been concluded without their co-operation ; the natural measure of a counter alliance was therefore resorted to, which was concluded at Herrnhausen, between England, France, and Prussia, and like that of Vienna, soon extended to the north of Europe, Denmark and Sweden being involved in it, as Russia was in that of Vienna.

11. The war which now threatened Europe, was fortunately averted by the timely death of the empress of Russia (1728), and the unexpected defection of Prussia. A congress met at Soissons, June 1728, for the purpose of establishing a solid and permanent peace ; but as the emperor insisted on the congress guaranteeing the *pragmatic sanction* (part iii. sect. 3, § 4), the other courts withdrew. In November 1729, a separate treaty was concluded at Seville, between France, England, and Spain, in favour of the pretensions of Don Carlos to Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia ; to which Holland soon after acceded, upon condition that the Ostend East India Company should be suspended.

12 The treaty of Seville gave great umbrage to the emperor ; but as the guarantee of the pragmatic sanction, was the talisman by which Charles VI. was always to be gained over, England, in 1731, and Holland, in 1732, complied with his wishes, and guaranteed the same upon the following conditions ; that the archduchess, who should succeed to the empire, should not marry any prince or potentate capable of disturbing the peace of Europe : that the emperor should acquiesce in the occupation of Tuscany, Parma,

and Placentia, by the infant Don Carlos, and abolish the Ostend company. A treaty to this effect, named the second treaty of Vienna, was signed by England and Holland, March 1731, to which Spain acceded June 6th, and the empire July 14th. In this way the differences arising out of the Spanish succession, which had kept Europe in a ferment for a space of 30 years, were happily brought to a close, and peace established on an apparently solid basis.

13. In 1733, France was again involved in war. The demise of Augustus II. had caused a vacancy in the elective throne of Poland. Two competitors appeared in the field; Augustus the son of the late king, and Stanislaus Leczinsky, father-in-law to Louis XV., who had previously filled the throne through the interposition of Charles XII. of Sweden (*supra*. part 2, sect. 66. § 6), but whom the czar had since dethroned. Russia espoused the cause of the former, dethroned Stanislaus (whose election had been secured by means of French influence), and procured the election of Augustus III. Oct. 5, 1733. Augustus gained the interest of Austria, by acknowledging the pragmatic sanction, and soon afterwards that of Prussia. France, annoyed at these proceedings, leagued with Spain and Sardinia, in support of Stanislaus, and commenced hostilities by an attack on the empire. Kehl was reduced, and Lorraine invaded, but the principal seat of war was in Italy: the combined French and Sardinian troops under Villars took Milan, and the Spaniards Naples, whence they proceeded to Sicily, and ultimately succeeded in taking all the Austrian possessions in Italy, and in placing Don Carlos on the throne of the two Sicilies; who was crowned king by the title of Charles III. July 1735.

14. The emperor now deemed it expedient to bring about an accommodation. Preliminaries of peace between France and Austria (the terms of which France dictated) were quickly signed at Vienna, Oct. 3, 1735, to which Sardinia acceded May 1, 1736, and Spain Nov. 15. By the terms of this treaty, France obtained the reversion of Lorraine and Bar, which were given to Stanislaus Leczinsky, after his renunciation of the crown of Poland, who immediately resigned it to France. The grand duchy of Tuscany was bestowed on the duke of Lorraine; Don Carlos was acknowledged king of the two Sicilies; the emperor (as an indemnification) obtained Parma and

Piacenza; and the king of Sardinia Vigevano and Novaro. France guaranteed the pragmatic sanction, which after some reluctance was also acceded to by the kings of Spain and Sardinia in 1739.

15. The consequences of this short war are in some degree remarkable, inasmuch as Alberoni's formerly unsuccessful plans on Italy were for the most part carried into execution, and France by obtaining Lorraine, a province of which she had been deprived for nearly 1000 years, had gained a substantial advantage, the loss of which must have been, both in political and geographical respects, sensibly felt by the German empire.

II.—*England from the Accession of the House of Hanover, 1714, to the end of the Reign of George I., 1727.*

1. On the demise of queen Anne who left no issue (*supra*, sect. 64. § 20), George Lewis, elector of Hanover, Brunswick, and Lunenburg, ascended the throne. George I. son of Sophia, grand-daughter of James I., acquired his title pursuant to the several acts of parliament for securing the protestant succession, by which the son of James II. (called the pretender) and every other catholic branch of the royal family of England were excluded, although many of them were more directly in the line of succession, than the protestant descendants of James I., in whom the crown was now vested.

2. The new sovereign was in his 54th year when he ascended the throne; his person, manners, and deportment were far from agreeable, but these deficiencies were more than counterbalanced by solid ability and great business talents. Soon after his arrival in England he was heard to say, "My maxim is to do justice, to fear no man, and never to abandon my friends."

3. The continental powers were not backward in expressing their entire acquiescence in the accession of his majesty. France, Holland, Prussia, and various other German states, openly acknowledged his right to the British crown, and expressed assurances of support—but how much these courtesies were to be depended upon has been since rendered too apparent; time having dispelled the mystic garb of court policy, and proved beyond a doubt, that the greater number of the continental powers were at this very moment his bitter enemies.

4. It was no matter of surprise that his majesty on his

immediate entrance into his new domain, favoured the interest of the whig party ; for, however impolitic the act might be in regard to popularity, it was in itself an act of necessity, the king had no choice, as many of the tories had evidently been tampering with the pretender during the last years of queen Anne.

5. Confident in their parliamentary strength, and in the partiality of the king, the whig party vindictively proceeded against the authors and advisers of the treaty of Utrecht, by impeaching the earl of Oxford, viscount Bolingbroke, the duke of Ormond, and others, for high treason. The earl of Oxford stood upon his defence, and, although imprisoned for a considerable time, he was at length acquitted. The duke of Ormond, and lord Bolingbroke fled to the continent, upon which their names and arms were erased from the peerage list, and all their possessions in England were declared forfeited to the crown. These violent proceedings on the part of the whigs, increased the popularity of the tory party and jacobites (for so the adherents of the pretender were called) to such an alarming extent as to render it expedient on the part of the parliament to suspend the *habeas corpus* act, and empower the king to raise fresh forces.

6. The time had now arrived when the friends of the pretender contemplated a general rise ; and, notwithstanding great precautions to the contrary, a rebellion broke out in Scotland, August 1715, headed by the earl of Mar, late secretary of state for that kingdom. In September the pretender's standard was erected at Brae Mar. The pretender did not arrive in Scotland until the December following, before which time the duke of Argyle, at the head of about 6,000 men, had attacked the rebels under Mar, who amounted to about 10,000, near Dumblain ; and though at the close of the engagement both parties left the field, the loss inflicted on Mar, virtually amounted to defeat. The treacherous lord Lovat now surrendered to the king the castle of Inverness, an important post which he held for the jacobites. Lord Stair, the English ambassador in France, performed his duty with much zeal, and by sending home the most timely and exact information of the designs of the pretender, enabled the government to prevent an outbreak in England, by the arrest of the leading malcontents.

7. On his arrival in Scotland, the pretender was greeted

with regal honours ; addresses were presented to him by many corporate bodies ; and even his coronation day was fixed upon. But during the course of these proceedings, the utter hopelessness of his cause became hourly more apparent ; the English gaols were filled with his misguided adherents ; the death of Louis XIV. who secretly favoured his cause, had deprived him of the means of carrying on the campaign, while the army of the king, now considerably augmented by Dutch as well as English troops, scoured the country, eager to seize his person. Under these circumstances, the enterprise was abandoned, and the pretender embarked at Montrose for France, accompanied by the earl of Mar and several other of his adherents, who by sheer good fortune escaped the English vessels, stationed to intercept their passage, and reached the coast of France in safety. Those who had previously fallen into the hands of the government, were punished with unsparing severity ; the earl of Derwentwater, Lord Kenmuir, with many other of the leading men, were sentenced to death, while upwards of a thousand of the common rebels were transported. Such was the issue of a rebellion that proved fatal to many families ; and which, instead of promoting the interest of the Stuarts, served only to strengthen the protestant succession in the house of Hanover.

8. The ministry now became alarmed at the odium which their treatment of the late delinquents had brought upon them, and fearing that an election might cause a reaction, and return upon them the merciless rigour they had so tyrannically exercised upon the people, resolved to hold office for as long time as possible ; they brought in a bill for extending the duration of parliament, from three to seven years, unless sooner dissolved by the king, and to come into immediate operation, which after much opposition in both houses, finally passed by a majority in the commons of 143, and has remained the law of parliament ever since.

9. In 1718 England, having become a party to the quadruple alliance (part iii. sect. 1, § 6), formed to counteract the daring projects of the Spanish minister, Alberoni, commenced hostilities, by sending a fleet to the Mediterranean under admiral Byng, who encountered and defeated the Spanish fleet, at the moment when they were about to invade Sicily and Naples, which completely ruined Alberoni's projects. War was declared against Spain, December 1718, between which time and the final disgrace of the Spanish minister, he sought revenge against

England by attempting to place the pretender on the British throne: but his intentions were frustrated by the interposition of Providence; the Spanish fleet on its way to Scotland, was overtaken by a violent storm, off Cape Finisterre, and so entirely dispersed and disabled, that only two small vessels reached the Scottish coast, and although the Spaniards succeeded in landing, they were shortly afterwards compelled to surrender themselves prisoners of war. The unexpected war against Spain was speedily brought to a close by the exemplary conduct of Admiral Byng, who, surmounting every difficulty, fully accomplished all the purposes of his mission to the Mediterranean, by putting the emperor into possession of Sicily, and the duke of Savoy, of Sardinia.

10. The parliament intent on reducing the national debt, which now amounted to more than 14,000,000, was induced to embrace the projects of the unprincipled Sir John Blount, a scrivener and director of the south sea company, which promised great advantages to the government, as tending to reduce the various funded debts into one stock, and to the country at large, by opening a new vast and safe trade to the south seas. The government having sanctioned the company's schemes, they invited the public to exchange government stock for equal nominal amounts in the south sea stocks, which so infatuated the nation that immediately the books of the company were opened for the transfer, there became a positive struggle for the precedence; the spirit of stock jobbing now swallowed up every other idea. The *furor* at length ran so high that shares, which originally sold for 100 pounds, were eagerly bought for 1,000. During this time many fortunes were made by the transfer and retransfer of shares; but many deemed their shares invaluable and preserved them until to their mortification they beheld their treasured scrip reduced to waste paper, by the company's failure to pay the very first dividend; the bubble burst, and thousands were reduced from affluence to beggary. Parliament interfered to punish a scheme it ought never to have sanctioned, by depriving the principal delinquents of the immense property they had so unfairly acquired, and as far as possible redressing the unfortunate sufferers.

11. In 1720 the king assiduously endeavoured to restore peace among the northern states of Europe; Prussia, Denmark, and Poland, reaped the fruits of his mediation; but the czar rejected his proposals and committed dreadful de-

vastation on the coast of Friesland, against which the British fleet could afford no protection; France interceded, and a treaty of peace between Russia and Sweden was signed at Nystadt, Sept. 1721.

12. At the close of the reign of George I. the courts of Europe were much embarrassed by the treaties of Vienna and Hanover, the issue of which was important to England. By the former treaty, Spain and the emperor had secretly bound themselves to aid the pretender, to further the interests of the Ostend East India Company, and to recover for Spain, Gibraltar and Port-Mahon. By the latter treaty England secured the alliance of Prussia, Sweden and Holland against the projects of Spain and the emperor; but as their aid was reluctantly promised, and in one instance soon discontinued, affairs began to wear a serious aspect, and extensive preparations for war took place on the part of almost all the nations concerned; but fortunately by the timely interposition of France, peace was agreed upon, and accepted by the emperor and Spain; the Ostend company was suspended; and the siege of Gibraltar, which had been carried on for four months, raised and abandoned, 1725.

13. Many abuses having crept into the court of chancery, which tended to impede the due administration of justice, the commons, at the instigation of the king, impeached the chancellor Thomas earl of Macclesfield at the bar of the house of lords for selling the offices in chancery at exorbitant prices, and giving up to his subalterns large sums belonging to litigating parties, to induce them to overlook his rapacity; an interesting trial ensued which lasted for twenty days. The earl was convicted and sentenced to pay a fine of 30,000 pcunds, which was accordingly discharged in less than two months afterwards.

14. During the last two years the king had not visited his German dominions, he therefore prepared for his journey to Hanover soon after the breaking up of the parliament. On the 7th of June, 1727, he landed at Vaert in Holland, and the next day proceeded on his journey. But on the 10th, about nine in the morning, he was seized in his coach with apoplexy and died at Osnaburgh on the 11th, in the 68th year of his age, and the 13th of his reign. He married the princess Sophia Dorothy, daughter and heiress to the duke of Zell, by whom he had one son who succeeded him to the throne, and a daughter married to the late king of Prussia.

III.—*Austria and Germany from the Peace of Radstadt, 1714, to the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.*

1. Charles VI. succeeded to the empire on the demise of his elder brother Joseph I. (1711). The succession war, in which Charles VI., as a competitor for the Spanish crown, had borne a conspicuous part, was nearly brought to a close by the treaty of Utrecht (1713), which all the contending powers, except Austria, had signed. The emperor soon perceived his error, being left alone to support an expensive war. Preliminaries of peace were accordingly drawn up at Radstadt, March 1714, and signed by the emperor at Baden in Switzerland in the September following. To the emperor was ceded the Spanish Netherlands, (except the barrier towns, given up to Holland) Naples, Sardinia, Milan, Friburg, and Kehl.

2. The restless jealousy of Spain again kindled the flame of war. In 1715, the Turks, at the instigation of Alberoni, and in violation of the treaty of Carlowitz, had taken the Morea, Cerigo, etc. from the Venetians; Austria hastened to their assistance; the brave Eugene defeated the Turks at Peterwardein; Bannat was subdued, together with a part of Servia and Wallachia; Belgrade was besieged June 1717; the grand vizier was defeated August 16th, and the fortifications were taken, as also Oroswa and Sernendria.

3. At the opening of the new campaign in 1718, matters were brought to an issue, and a peace concluded, through the mediation of England and Holland, at Passarowitz; by which Austria obtained Belgrade, Temeswar, Bannat, and a part of Servia and Wallachia, as far as the Aluta. Venice retained the conquered places in Dalmatia, but resigned to the porte, Morea, Cerigo, etc.

4. The anxiety of Charles VI. at leaving behind him only daughters, led him to frame the pragmatic sanction—a sort of family compact—which decreed, that, at his demise, in default of male issue, all the hereditary dominion belonging to the house of Austria, should descend to his eldest daughter. The emperor found it no easy task to procure the assent of the leading powers to this act. It was accepted by the hereditary states 1720. By the treaty of Vienna, (*supra*, part iii. sec. 1, § 12,) as well as by previous negotiations, the assent of England and almost every other power, except France, Spain, and Sardinia, was obtained

1731; France was gained over 1738; and Spain and Sardinia 1739.

5. Austria, as an ally of Russia, became engaged in a fresh war with the Turks 1736; the war, on the part of Austria, was of short duration, the Turks soon observed that Eugene was no more, and the jealousies of the allies facilitated their operations; the Austrians were expelled from Servia, Bosnia, and Wallachia. In 1739 the grand vizier advanced before Belgrade, at which place peace was concluded highly advantageous to Turkey, September 18th; Austria surrendered Servia, with the fortresses of Belgrade and Szabatch, and Austrian Wallachia, with the fortress of Orsova. The porte also obtained advantages over Russia. This convention was artfully conducted by an agent of the French court, who was instructed to prevent the dismemberment of Turkey by the combined forces, to resist the aggrandisement of Austria, and if possible, separate her from her northern ally.

6. On the 20th of October 1740, Charles VI. the 16th emperor and the last heir male of the house of Hapsburgh, died: his eldest daughter the archduchess Maria Theresa, consort of the duke of Lorraine (afterwards archduke of Tuscany), according to the pragmatic sanction, succeeded to all his states; viz. Hungary, Bohemia, Silesia, Austrian Suabia, Upper and Lower Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Burgau, Brisgau, the Low Countries, Friuli, Tyrol, Mantua, and the duchies of Milan, Parma, and Placentia.

7. Although the archduchess had taken possession of all the Austrian dominions, she was not permitted to retain them long in peace. The elector of Bavaria pretended to be the proper heir to the kingdom of Bohemia. Augustus II. elector of Saxony and king of Poland, having married the eldest daughter of Joseph I. elder brother of Charles VI., claimed the whole Austrian succession; the king of Spain did the same, though upon a more remote title, and entirely through females. The king of Sardinia made pretensions to the duchy of Milan, and Frederic II. of Prussia to the province of Silesia. The king of France also pretended to have derived a right from two princesses, married to Louis XIII. and XIV., but not choosing to depend upon these titles, he espoused the cause of the elector of Bavaria; no semblance of justice could here be

brought forward, for Louis XV. had not merely recognised but even guaranteed the pragmatic sanction.

8. The king of Prussia, who at this time possessed an army and treasury of no small importance, was the most forward and active of the queen's opponents; his movements were sudden, and quite unexpected by the court of Vienna. He pretended at first to be only desirous of occupying Silesia as a friend to the queen, but the mask was soon laid aside, and his determination to become master of Lower Silesia rendered visible.

9. Charles VI. had left his finances embarrassed, and the army in a deplorable condition. Under these circumstances, England counselled the resignation of Silesia, but the queen firmly persisted in retaining her inheritance entire, alleging that the resignation of a part would only increase the importunity of the other claimants.

10. The elector of Bavaria, aided by France and Saxony, penetrated into Bohemia, Sept. 1741; Prague was captured in the following November, where the elector was crowned king of Bohemia. In February 1742, the diet of Frankfort conferred the imperial dignity on him as Charles VII. The dismemberment of the Austrian dominions now seemed inevitable, Frederic II. had gained possession of Silesia, Spain and Prussia had joined France and the other allies of Bavaria, who soon possessed themselves of the whole of the Austrian dominion, except Hungary, Lower Austria, the Belgian States, and the duchies of Carinthia, Styria and Carniola.

11. The situation of the queen was at this time truly deplorable: her treasures were exhausted, her ministry broken up, her army destroyed, and her anticipation of foreign assistance frustrated. England was already engaged in open war with Spain, and Russia with Sweden; but the high spirited Maria Theresa still resisted the unjust demand of her foes. She had at the commencement of her reign, by taking the ancient oath of Andrew II., attached to her interests the brave Hungarians: she now fled to them for aid, and appearing before the assembly with her child in her arms, delivered an eloquent address in the Latin language. "Danger threatens the kingdom of Hungary," said the queen, "our person, our offspring, and our crown; forsaken by all; we have recourse only to the fidelity of our noble states, the arms and ancient valour of the Hungarians." A thousand swords leaped from their

scabbards, while "We will die for our queen Maria Theresa," again and again resounded through the hall; nor was the nation backward in supporting the resolutions of the diet; Croats, Pandours, Sclavonians, flocked to the royal standard, and, by the aid of British and Dutch subsidies, struck terror into the disciplined armies of Germany and France.

12. Vienna was put into a state of defence; divisions began to arise among the queen's enemies; Frederic was bought off by the cession of Lower Silesia and Breslau; a British-German army assembled in the Netherlands; Bohemia was recovered; Bavaria itself was conquered, and the emperor Charles VII. compelled to flee (1742). The next year George II. gained a complete victory over the French at Dettingen, and the queen obtained two new allies, the king of Sardinia in Italy, and the elector of Saxony, in Germany.

13. France now declared war against England, and the fear of losing Silesia, if Austria, now leagued with Saxony, should be victorious, induced Frederic II. to again commence hostilities against the queen (1744). Charles VII. survived long enough to return to his capital; his death, January 20, 1745, seemed necessarily to produce an entire change in the situation of affairs; his son and successor Maximilian Joseph, renounced his claims on the imperial crown, in return for his hereditary dominions, and Maria Theresa's consort Francis, grand duke of Tuscany, was elected emperor of Germany in the September of the same year. In the following December, a treaty of peace between Prussia on the one hand, and Austria and Saxony on the other, was concluded at Dresden, by which Frederic II. agreed to recognise Francis I. as emperor, on being put in possession of Silesia and Glatz, the chief objects for which he had been contending.

14. France and her remaining allies continued the war in the Netherlands and Italy with great vigour, but the queen, aided by the British fleet in the Mediterranean, soon recovered all that her enemies had acquired in Italy, while the restoration of the stadtholdership baffled their hopes of future advantages in Flanders and Holland. France now began to think of peace; the death of Philip V. of Spain, deprived her of that ally, her finances were exhausted, her fleet destroyed, her colonies in the two Indies were captured or menaced, while Russia, subsidised by England, had been induced to take up arms in favour of Austria.

These circumstances led to the opening of a congress at Aix-la-Chapelle, April 15, 1748, which terminated in a peace concluded October 7, 1748. By this treaty, Austria lost Silesia, Glatz, Parma, Placentia, Guastalla, and some places in the Milanese; but she succeeded in the article of the succession. Silesia and Glatz were guaranteed to Prussia, by all the contracting powers. This accession of territory raised her into the condition of a power capable of entering the field as a rival of Austria. Holland lost much, and gained nothing; the stadtholdership was made hereditary in the house of Orange, and that in favour of the female as well as the male heirs; but the female heirs were precluded from marrying any king or elector of the empire.

15. Spain obtained for two branches of her royal family, Naples, Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, upon the conditions, that Parma and Guastalla were to revert to Austria, and Placentia to Sardinia, should Don Philip die without issue, or succeed to either Spain or Naples.

16. France relinquished all her conquests in the Low Countries for the restitution of Cape Breton. All the contracting powers guaranteed the succession of Great Britain and of the German States, in favour of the house of Hanover; and also confirmed that the fortifications of Dunkirk should be demolished, and that the English ships annually sent with slaves to the coast of New Spain, should have this privilege continued for four years.

IV.—*England from the Accession of George II. to the Throne, 1727, to his Death, 1760.*

1. George II. ascended the throne in the 44th year of his age, at a time when the nation was involved in a labyrinth of treaties and conventions with foreign powers. In accordance with the advice of his consort, queen Caroline, by whom he was much influenced, he continued the same line of policy his father had pursued, under the administration of Sir Robert Walpole. In 1728, peace was established at home and abroad; in the following year, the publication of the parliamentary debates was prohibited, by order of both the houses.

2. The unceasing atrocities and insults which for many years had been perpetrated by the Spanish guard ships, upon the British vessels trading with America and the West Indies, at length created a ferment. One of the

witnesses that were examined at the bar of the house of commons, stated that the Spaniards without previous provocation, boarded his ship, insulted his crew, and then tore off one of his ears, which they threw into his face, telling him to take it to his king. Upon being asked what he thought when he found himself in the hands of such barbarians, he replied, "I then looked up to my God for pardon, and to my country for revenge." These words, and the display of his dismembered ear, filled the house with indignation.

3. The government endeavours to remedy the evils complained of by treaty, only increased the arrogance of the Spaniards, who defended their conduct by accusing the English of carrying on a contraband trade with their colonies. The very convention, which, according to the treaty of Seville (1729), was to be the preliminary of a perfect adjustment of all differences, was disregarded by them, and in one instance, they attacked a whole fleet of English merchant ships at the island of Tortugas, as if the two nations had been at war.

4. War was now declared against Spain, and the most strenuous exertions were made to put the navy in the best possible condition. In 1740, admiral Vernon with a small force, captured Porto Bello, a fort and harbour in South America; but at the end of the year, it was ascertained that Spain had taken 400 vessels, many of them richly laden. These losses were partially compensated by the bravery of Commodore Anson, who in 1741, captured the Spanish galleon laden with treasures, to the value of £313,000.

5. The people now became dissatisfied with the conduct of the war; the unsuccessful issue of the expedition against the Spanish colonies under Commodore Anson and General Wentworth, which cost the lives of 15,000 men, filled the kingdom with so much discontent, that the minister, sir Robert Walpole, was compelled, much against his will, to resign his appointments, February, 1742. On the following day, the king elevated him to the peerage by the title of earl of Orford; he was succeeded by lord Carteret.

6. Sir Robert Walpole was an intelligent, prudent, and peace-loving minister; his opponents accused him of governing by corruption, while his friends as confidently assert, that he ruled solely by means of party attachments. The excise bill, first proposed in the house of commons in the year 1732, much incensed the public against sir

Robert; the bill was simply a plan for 'converting the duties on wine and tobacco, which hitherto had been duties of customs, into duties of excise; it was calculated to check the frauds upon the revenue, to encourage in every way the fair dealer, and by the savings produced in the treasury, to lighten the public burdens; yet such a clamour was raised against the bill, as to oblige the ministry to abandon it. The other measure which brought odium on this able minister, was his trespass on the sinking fund, first established in 1727, and which he made no scruple to alienate for public purposes, as occasion seemed to require.

7. The new administration, by deviating so much from the principles they had avowed while in the opposition, soon became as unpopular as their predecessors. While Walpole was in office, England supported the cause of Maria Theresa (*supra*, part iii. sec. 3, § 11, 14,) by negotiations and subsidies, but now whole armies and larger subsidies were granted, which so irritated the public, that in 1744, lord Carteret (now earl of Granville) was forced to resign office, and a coalition of parties was formed, which, from including tories, whigs, and patriots, obtained the name of the broad bottom parliament.

8. While George II. was occupied on the continent, in endeavouring to bring the pragmatic war to a successful issue, Louis of France encouraged Charles Edward, the eldest son of the pretender, to try his strength in Britain. In 1745, the year in which Walpole died, accompanied by the marquis of Tullibardine, sir Thomas Sheridan, and a few other desperate adventurers, he landed on one of the desolate parts of Scotland, with difficulty got a few chiefs to join him, obtained possession of the town (though not of the castle) of Edinburgh, pushed on to the northern counties of England, shaped his course for the capital, and actually reached Derby in his way to it; when some of his leaders, despairing of the enterprise, forced him to retreat. He then returned to Scotland, defeated a second royal army at Falkirk, and at length in April 1746, about nine months after his first landing, regularly encountered at Culloden the veteran troops of the duke of Cumberland, who had been expressly recalled from Flanders to suppress the rebellion; the Highlanders bravely sustained the attack, but were ultimately driven from the field with great slaughter. The young pretender now became a fugitive, and was hunted from place to place; and though a

reward of £30,000, in a manner not very worthy of an English cabinet, was set upon his head, not a man could be found among those patriotic children of tempest and poverty, the brave Highlanders, base enough to assassinate or betray him. After enduring incredible hardships, he at length embarked for France, and thus terminated for ever the struggles of that exiled and deposed family to recover its ancient dominions. The royalists committed the most inhuman excesses after the battle of Culloden, they showed no quarter, and like beasts of prey hunted down the deluded Highlanders in their native wilds, accepting no retribution short of blood.

9. Although some few of the adherents of the pretender fled to the continent, numbers of them underwent the sentence of death for high treason, whose crime, though a melancholy infatuation, must in their own eyes have appeared the very reverse, and whose loyalty and attachment, with the law on their side, would have met with the highest praise. History records with a blush the parliamentary vote of £25,000 per annum to the duke of Cumberland, in addition to his former income, for his great successes and excesses at Culloden Moor.

10. In 1751 the prince of Wales died of a pleuritic disorder, in the 45th year of his age. The most remarkable act passed this session, was that for correcting the calendar according to the Gregorian computation. It was enacted that the new year should begin on the 1st of January, instead of as heretofore on the 25th of March; and that 11 days between the 2nd and 14th of September 1752, should for that time be omitted, so that the day succeeding the 2nd should be called the 14th of that month; the Julian computation, supposing a *solar* revolution to be effected in the precise period of 365 days and six hours, having made no provision for the deficiency of 11 minutes, which in the lapse of 18 centuries amounted to a difference of 11 days.

11. Though the war in Europe was hushed up by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, England and France came to no good understanding with regard to their colonial possessions; the daily increase of disputes and jealousies in the East and West Indies soon involved both countries in a fresh war, (part iii. sec. 4.) which extended to all parts of the globe, and continued beyond the reign of George II., who died suddenly at Kensington on the 25th of October

1760, in the 77th year of his age and the 34th of his reign. The immediate cause of his death was a rupture of the right ventricle of the heart.

12. This monarch was possessed of no shining abilities ; he was partial to war, violent in his temper, parsimonious to a fault, and much attached to his German dominions ; but he was plain and direct in his intentions, true to his word, and steady in his favour and protection to his servants, not parting even with his ministers till compelled to it by the violence of faction.

V.—Of the Seven Years' War, 1755—1762.

1. Though for some time after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, hostilities were suspended in Europe, the flame of war still raged in America and Asia. France, jealous of England's preponderating force at sea, energetically commenced rebuilding her fleet, which had been so utterly annihilated by the British in the late war.

2. It had long been the policy of France to endeavour to dispossess England of her principal settlements in the East Indies and America ; many circumstances now conspired which seemed to favour her schemes. In the East Indies, the invasion of Kouli-Khan, the king of Persia, (in 1738), had irrevocably shaken the power of the mogul, from which time the viceroys and other subordinate governors had slighted his authority, and in a greater or less degree become independent. Disputes frequently arose between these petty princes, and one of the parties would generally solicit the aid of the French, who were remunerated on every such occasion by fresh cession of territory. This aroused the jealousy of the English, who naturally adopted the same line of policy, so that whenever there was a rupture between the native princes or nabobs, they each found allies in the European settlers. In 1751, a fierce contest arose between Chundah Sahib and Mohammed Ali, for the nabobship of the Carnatic. France espoused the cause of the former, England supported the latter ; thus the two rival nations of Europe were brought into a state of hostility, not as avowed principals, but as the auxiliaries of the Indian nabobs.

3. It was at this period that the celebrated Mr. Clive, afterwards lord Clive, first distinguished himself. He had not only discernment enough to see through and detect all the designs and artifices of the French governor, Du-

pleix, the enterprising author and fomenter of all the troubles, but, though not brought up to the military profession, soon proved himself more than a match for all the talents that were brought into play against him. With a small force he took Arcot, and he afterwards successfully defended it against Chundah Saib, who besieged it with a powerful army. Many brilliant victories followed on the side of the English and their allies; the French were baffled in all their projects, most of their possessions taken from them; Mohammed Ali's claims were acknowledged; Dupleix was recalled, and a suspension of arms was agreed upon, 1754.

4. In America, the boundaries of the British and French colonies still remained undefined. The French colonists were united both in their object and operations, while the English were so divided by disagreements and differences, as to render it, at least for a time, impossible for them to act in concert, however necessary to their best interests. Under these circumstances the French endeavoured to connect, by a chain of forts, their two distant colonies of Canada and Louisiana, and to confine the English entirely within that track of country which lies between the Alleghany and Apalachian mountains and the sea. These schemes could not be carried out without palpable encroachment on territories previously appropriated to others. England was not backward in her endeavours to thwart the designs of France. She now resorted to open force and captured several merchantmen and two ships of the line as reprisals, 1755.

5. In May, 1756, England declared war against France, which was carried on with various successes by the rival powers, who were severally assisted by different tribes of Indians. During this war many acts of cruelty were perpetrated by both nations; and while the English writers attribute the whole war to the intrigues and encroachments of the French, the latter as confidently ascribed it to the cupidity and aggressions of the English. Though at the commencement of the war, France gained several victories on land, her losses at sea were extremely great: before the contest had lasted a year, no less than 300 merchant-vessels, many of them richly laden, had been captured by the English.

6. A European war was the inevitable consequence of these proceedings, and from the term of its duration, it

obtained the name of the seven years' war. Though Austria was bound by treaty to assist England in case of an attack, she now joined France, and through the aid of Russia, assiduously endeavoured to recover Silesia and Glatz, which had been ceded to Prussia, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

7. England now leagued with Prussia, which gave such offence to the czarina, who personally disliked the Prussian monarch, as quickly to bring about a union of Russia, Austria, and France. In addition to these, the German empire was induced by the influence of Austria, and Sweden by that of France, to join the coalition, and thus more than half of Europe were arrayed, not so much against England, or even the kingdom of Prussia, as against Frederic himself.

8. In 1757, the whole vengeance of France and her allies was directed against Hanover, and the king of Prussia. Frederic, with his characteristic boldness, anticipated their attack, and at the very onset, dispossessed the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, of his capital, his whole army, and his electoral dominions. This sudden manœuvre much discomfited the court of Versailles, the life of the dauphiness, daughter of the king of Poland, having been endangered by the intelligence received of the misfortunes of her royal parents.

9. Perhaps the whole circle of history nowhere displays a spectacle more instructive as respects military tactics, than the conduct of the seven years' war by Frederic. The rapidity of his motions were beyond all example; undaunted by danger and misfortune, he frequently extricated himself from apparently overwhelming disasters, he found means to humble all the powers that menaced him, and he defended himself with surprising success in Silesia, Saxony, Brandenburg, Hanover, and Westphalia, against the armies of the empire, Austria, Russia, France, Sweden, and Saxony. Had he been as humane as he was brave, his military character would have been perhaps unparalleled. The bloodshed that took place during this war is truly horrifying, no less than 200,000 men fell annually.

10. For some time Frederic's allies rather embarrassed than assisted his operation; 38,000 Hanoverians and Hessians, under the command of the duke of Cumberland, had been reduced, though neither beaten nor disarmed, to a state of inactivity, and Hanover, after a sharp contest,

in which the French had the advantage, given up to the enemy, by a convention, the most singular upon record, signed at Closter-seven September 8th, 1757, entirely at the instance of the regent, which so offended the royal duke, that he immediately resigned his command. This convention was exceedingly humiliating to England, and proved almost a fatal blow to the king of Prussia.

11. Much of the renewed activity of the British, contributed little or nothing to their glory or advantage. By the desire of Mr. Pitt, afterwards Lord Chatham, incursions were made on the coast of France. The only advantages that were gained by these expeditions, after much bloodshed and a great outlay of money, was the demolition of the works at Cherburg and the capture of Belle Isle, which was of use afterwards, as an exchange for Minorca.

12. England had liberally subsidised her allies on the continent; she had been eminently successful in America, Asia, and Africa, and her formidable navy had borne down all before it on the ocean. France had the mortification to behold for a second time her fleet almost annihilated, her commerce destroyed, her colonies in the East and West Indies captured by the British, and even Canada completely subdued by the armies under the command of Wolfe, Townshend, Monckton, Murray and Amherst, who displayed unparalleled zeal and valour in the capture of the towns of Quebec and Montreal.

13. In Europe, though prince Ferdinand, who now commanded the allied army, had driven the French back and compelled them to evacuate Hanover, Brunswick and Bremen, it was doubted whether his forces would be sufficient to maintain these advantages. But the genius of this prince surmounted every difficulty: he compelled the French to come to an engagement under circumstances peculiarly favourable to the allied armies, and the battle of Minden, which took place August 1st, 1759, effectually relieved Hanover and the greater part of Westphalia from the presence of the French.

14. On the 10th of August, 1759, Ferdinand VI. of Spain died, and was succeeded by his brother Don Carlos, king of the two Sicilies, under the title of Charles III. According to the terms of Aix-la-Chapelle, Don Philip should have surrendered Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, to Austria and Sardinia, and removed to Naples, (*supra*,

part iii., sec. 3, § 15.) But as Charles III. had never acceded to that treaty, he left the crown of the two Sicilies to his third son, Ferdinand; and Don Philip agreed, and was allowed by Austria to retain the three duchies.

15. In 1761, a family compact was concluded between the courts of Versailles and Madrid; and seeing no chance of gaining colonial advantages over England, they resolved to try their united strength in attempting the subjugation of her ancient ally, Portugal. Joseph strenuously resisted the terms dictated to him by the combined monarchs. He applied to England for assistance, and her help came so opportunely, that though the Spaniards had passed the frontiers, and had actually taken several towns, they were now compelled to evacuate the kingdom with great loss.

16. In Germany, prince Ferdinand and the marquis of Granby protected Hanover, and recovered the greater part of Hesse. At the same time the king of Prussia, who had been brought to the verge of ruin, experienced a stroke of good fortune. The empress Elizabeth of Russia died, and Peter III., who had long admired the heroic king, had no sooner ascended the throne, than he made peace with him, and restored all the conquests of the Russians. From that time Frederick was not only able to concentrate his whole force against the Austrians, but was supported by Peter, who concluded an alliance with him, and dispatched to his aid an army of 20,000 men. The reign of Peter III., in consequence of his too extensive plans of reform, was of very short duration; and though his successor, Catherine II., recalled the auxiliary Russians from the Prussian army, her opposition to Frederic was but slight, and soon terminated in a treaty of peace, in which she was followed by Sweden. During this time the English were extending their conquests in the East Indies. They took Havannah and Manila from the Spaniards, and St. Vincent, Grenada, and St. Lucia from the French.

17. The war was now carried on with less spirit than before. Both sides were exhausted with previous efforts; and France and Spain, whose whole colonies were threatened with ruin, were evidently only waiting till England would consent to stop in her career of victory, to propose terms of peace. A change of ministry however laid the foundation for such measures. In 1761

Mr. Pitt resigned, and was succeeded by lord Bute, who immediately entered into the negotiations with France, which were brought to an issue on the 10th of February, 1763, when peace was concluded at Versailles, between Great Britain, France, and Spain; in five days afterwards a treaty of peace was signed at Hubertsberg between Austria and Prussia. By the latter treaty scarcely any alterations were made in the territorial arrangements of Germany, but by the former much was added to the colonial possessions of England, in Asia, Africa, and America; from the French she acquired the whole province of Canada, that part of Louisiana, east of the Mississippi, Cape Breton, Senegal, the Islands of Grenada, Dominica, St. Vincent, and Tobago, with all the acquisitions they had made upon the Coromandel coast in the East Indies, since 1749; from Spain she acquired Minorca, and East and West Florida.

18. Thus after seven most destructive and expensive campaigns, in which the half of Europe had been in arms against England and Prussia, terminated this memorable contest; England alone may be said to have been in a high state of prosperity at the conclusion of peace, her navy was considerably augmented at the expense of the navy of France, and her commerce extended from pole to pole.

VI.—*England, from the accession of George III. 1760, to the commencement of the disputes with America, 1764.*

1. George III., grandson of George II., ascended the throne, October 25th, 1760, in the 23rd year of his age. The young king had been born and educated in England. His upright character, his affable disposition, and his acquaintance with the language, habits, and institutions of his countrymen, secured to him the attachment of his people, and gave hopes of a quiet, and tranquil reign. George III. was married to the princess Charlotte, of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, on September 8th, 1761, and on the 22nd, their majesties were crowned at Westminster. On his majesty's accession the nominal head of the administration was the duke of Newcastle, but Mr. Pitt, principal secretary of state, was the presiding genius of the cabinet.

2. The seven years' war, through the exhaustion of the

allies of Austria, particularly the French, Saxons, and Poles, was brought to a close. Shortly after the accession of George III., in 1761, negotiations for peace were commenced by the courts of Great Britain and France; but neither party were willing to make concession; and Mr. Pitt, having discovered that Spain had ceded to the family compact and continental confederacy, determined on a continuation of hostilities, and proposed in council, the seizure of the Plate fleet, laden with the treasures of Spanish America. To this, the king, and most of the ministers were adverse, upon which, Mr. Pitt resigned. Lord Bute, who was now placed at the head of the ministry, listened to the overtures of France, and in 1763, peace was concluded, which much displeased the nation, as the war had become exceedingly popular.

3. In 1762 a question arose, which, though it led to riots and tumults, terminated in the relief of the subject from an arbitrary process, exceedingly repugnant to the spirit of the constitution. For some time, the press had teemed with political pamphlets, which the ministry seemed to have disregarded, until the appearance of No. 45, of the *North Brit* ^{ish}, conducted by Mr. Wilks, member for Aylesbury, in which the king's speech to the parliament was much abused. A general warrant, that is, a warrant not specifying the names of the accused, was therefore issued to take the author, printer, and publisher of it into custody. Mr. Wilks was seized, and committed to the Tower. He was afterwards tried in the court of common pleas, and acquitted—lord chief justice Pratt declaring against the legality of general warrants: nor has any attempt been since made to reinvest the government with so dangerous and formidable a power. The question of general warrants, however, was not the only one in which Mr. Wilks appeared as the champion of the people's liberty. Being elected for Middlesex, after having been expelled the house, he claimed his seat in defiance of the resolution of parliament, but was not allowed to sit. Five years afterwards he was permitted again to enter the house of commons. Thus the parliament maintained its power of declaring a particular individual disqualified against the decision of a majority of electors.

4. The unpopularity of lord Bute, and the unconstitutional proceedings against Mr. Wilks, caused much

excitement during the first years of the reign of George III. The addresses, petitions, and remonstrances, which flowed in upon his majesty from all parts of the kingdom, frequently involved him in unpleasant difficulties. They were often couched in very bold and daring language; and some of them went so far, as to deny the legality of the present parliament, the validity of its acts, and the obligation of the people to obey them. .

5. We may here as well observe, though in doing so we overstep our chronological boundary, that in 1769, a great sensation was created by the letters of *Junius*, which were distinguished by the keen satire, and force and elegance of style. The unknown writer of these letters displayed an extraordinary knowledge of the proceedings of the king and his ministers, whose follies and vices he attacked with unsparing severity, and he completely confounded all his adversaries. Mr. Woodfall, the publisher of the *Public Advertiser*, the paper in which they originally appeared, was prosecuted for libel: the jury however, found a verdict of guilty of *printing and publishing only*, which, in effect, amounted to an acquittal.

VII.—*Disputes between Great Britain and her American Colonies, 1764—1783.*

1. During the seven years' war which had begun in America, Great Britain, at a considerable expense of men and money, had offered every necessary protection to her colonies (part 3, sec. 5.) It was therefore urged that, as the national debt had been considerably augmented by these circumstances, the colonies might with propriety be called upon to contribute by direct taxation to its reduction.

2. The question was no sooner started, than Mr. Grenville, the prime minister, procured the passing of the stamp act (1764), by which the Americans were directly subjected to a tax, imposed by the British parliament, without their own consent, not immediately applicable to their own wants or necessities, and contrary to every former mode of raising money for such purposes. As the North American colonies were originally peopled and civilized by adventurers from the mother country, who emigrated on account of civil or religious persecutions, it is no matter of surprise that this act, on its

first promulgation in these parts, met with very powerful resistance.

3. Representation, and the policy, power, and right of legislation now became the all absorbing topics of discussion. The debates in both houses were violent, and for a short period, the friends of America obtained the helm of government. In June, 1765, the Grenville ministry was succeeded by the Rockingham, and though they continued in office for little more than one year, in that short space of time, the stamp act, which had been so ill received in America, was formally repealed: but this was accompanied by a vote declaratory of the right of Great Britain to tax America in all cases. This vote much displeased the colonists, who immediately declared their determination to resist all internal duties, which the parliament of Great Britain might attempt to levy upon them without their consent. But they also expressed their desire to yield willing submission, as heretofore, to all *external* taxation, through the operation of laws of trade and navigation, enacted in the mother country.

4. Though the stamp act had been repealed, America still remained in a state of great excitement. The resolution passed by the North administration, promising to desist from all taxation, except commercial imports, whenever any one of the colonial assemblies should vote a reasonable sum as a revenue to be appropriated by parliament, had no good effect. Non-importation and non-consumption agreements were soon entered into, and associations formed to methodise and consolidate the opposition to government.

5. In 1767, Mr. Charles Townshend revived the idea of taxing America, and from that time to the commencement of the war, both countries were in a state of the greatest agitation. During this period the opposition frequently endeavoured to convince the ministry of the injustice and impolicy of their proceedings, and they fairly forwarned them of the consequences, but their counsels were slighted.

6. In 1774, some tea, on which a small duty was charged by the British legislature for the purpose of asserting its right of taxation, was sent out to America. When the vessels arrived at Boston they were boarded, during the night, by the populace, and the cargoes thrown into the sea. This outrage, followed by a repetition of

similar conduct on the part of the inhabitants of South Carolina, gave great offence, while it occasioned considerable alarm in England. Acts were now passed for closing the port of Boston, and for taking the executive power out of the hands of the people, and vesting it in the crown.

7. In 1775, ten years from the passing of the stamp act, war actually commenced. The Americans appointed general Washington to be commander-in-chief of all their forces, and in almost every engagement they either conquered, or much disabled the English. Hitherto, notwithstanding their uninterrupted success, the Americans had disclaimed all idea of assuming independence; but as matters had now been carried to so great a length, that no hopes remained of an amicable adjustment of differences, on July 4th, 1776, the congress published the *declaration of independence of the thirteen United States*. From this time the proceedings of congress became more dignified. The campaign of 1776 turned out favourable for the Americans, and very creditable to their brave commander.

8. At the opening of the ensuing campaign, the fortune of war was on the side of the English. Sir W. Howe defeated Washington at the battle of Brandywine, and took Philadelphia. A decided reverse soon succeeded. General Burgoyne, on his route from Canada, through the northern states, was surrounded by the American forces at Saratoga, and he and his whole army, amounting to 5,752 men, were compelled to surrender prisoners of war.

9. In November, 1776, Dr. Franklin, and Silas Deane were despatched by congress to solicit the aid of the French, and, strange as it may appear, the court of Versailles willingly acceded to their requests. A formal treaty was shortly afterwards entered into, acknowledging the independency of America, and succour and support to a large extent were promised. In 1779, Spain influenced by France, joined the confederacy against England, and in 1780 Holland did the same. In the meanwhile, commissioners had been sent from England to America to treat for peace, but the Americans, insisting on the previous acknowledgment of their independency, rendered their attempts fruitless. The surrender of Cornwallis, with about 6,000 men, at York Town, to the combined French and American army, under Washington,

gave a death blow to all rational expectation of subjugating America, 1781.

10. In the course of this war England gained many advantages over her European enemies. In Asia she acquired an empire, much greater in wealth and population than all she had to lose in the west; and she added fresh lustre to the glory of her arms, by the brave defence of Gibraltar, under general Elliott, against the combined forces of France and Spain. The siege was begun in 1779, and entirely abandoned in 1782, with the loss of all the Spanish floating batteries, and the defeat of the combined fleets of France and Spain by lord Howe.

11. The depression of trade caused by the armed neutrality, and the non-success of the American war, gave rise to so much clamour against lord North and his Tory friends, that they now resigned their appointments. Under the new administration, negotiations for a general peace commenced at Paris, and the basis of it being arranged, it was speedily ratified. England restored the island of St. Lucia, the city of Pondicherry, and the settlements on the Senegal to France; who in return, gave up her West India conquests, with the exception of Tobago. Spain retained Minorca and Florida. Holland ceded Negapatam to England, upon the condition that a mutual restitution of conquests should take place; and on the 20th of January, 1783, England formally acknowledged the thirteen united colonies of America to be free, sovereign, and independent states.

VIII.—*France from the Peace of Paris, 1763, to the Death of Louis XV., 1774.**

1. Since the reign of Louis XIV. the religious disputes between the jesuits and jansenists had more or less occupied the attention of all ranks of persons. During the regency of the duke of Orleans, the flame of fanaticism nearly expired; nor did it burst out again till the year 1750, when, through the bigotry of the then archbishop of Paris, the clergy were encouraged to refuse extreme unction to all who should not produce confessional notes, signed by persons who adhered to the bull *Unigenitus*, the public instrument by which the pope, in 1713, had condemned the jansenists as heretics.

2. The magistrates on this occasion sided with the pro-

* For the external affairs of France since 1738, see sec. 3 and 5. From 1738 to 1763, the theological disputes are the only subjects in regard to the internal affairs of the country that particularly demand the attention of the historian.

ple, and unscrupulously committed to prison all who refused to administer the sacrament to persons in their last moments. This enraged the jesuits, they appealed to the king, and he immediately commanded all the chambers of parliament to register letters patent, to suspend the prosecutions relative to the refusal of the sacrament; this order they peremptorily refused to obey. In 1753, they were banished, and though recalled in the following year, they again dared to disobey the king's mandate; the sovereign therefore, repaired to parliament in person, in November, 1756, and in a *bed of justice* finally ordered them to register the edicts in his name, which they could no longer, as the constitution then stood, refuse.

3. In 1757, Damiens, a religious fanatic, stabbed the king as he was stepping into his carriage. This act produced a powerful impression on the mind of his majesty, who shortly afterwards made peace with the parliament and banished the archbishop of Paris, the chief fomentor of the religious disturbances.

4. The disposition of the court and clergy to uphold the arbitrary powers of the sovereign, the inveterate superstition and bigotry of the times, the venality of the government, and the profligate and abandoned life of the monarch, gave a handle to the philosophers or *litterati* of the day, to take the reform of matters into their own hands. They much hastened the dissolution of the jesuits by their witty and often unanswerable attacks on the ancient order. On the 6th of August, 1762, the jesuits were secularized, and their possessions sold by order of the king, though many alleged that their services were now more than ever needed as a check to the deistical and atheistical principles of the new philosophy. In November 1764, the king, influenced by his mistress, the marchioness of Pompadour, and his minister, the duke de Choiseul issued an edict for the entire abolition of the order in France.

5. In 1765, the dauphin died, at the age of 36, his consort survived him only 15 months. The last act of the duke de Choiseul's ministry, whose policy seems to have been the fomenting of disputes between the English and the Americans, and the protection of Poland from the aggressions of Russia, was the negotiation of the marriage of the young dauphin, afterwards Louis XVI. with Marie Antoinette, the daughter of the empress Theresa, in 1770.

6. The parliaments, elated by the downfall of the jesuits

now began to attack the arbitrary power of the king, whose recklessness and profligacy had opened the doors to abuses in almost every department of administration. In 1770 and 1771, the king held several beds of justice, but without producing the desired effect; greater extremities were therefore resorted to; several provincial parliaments, as well as that at Paris, were suppressed, and 700 magistrates exiled or imprisoned.

7. Louis XV. one of the most odious and contemptible characters in French history, died of the small-pox, in the sixty-eighth year of his age, and fifty-ninth of his reign, May 10th, 1774.

IX.—*France, from the Accession of Louis XVI., 1774, to the overthrow of the Directory, 1799.*

1. Louis XVI. succeeded to the crown under circumstances much resembling those which ushered in the reign of his predecessor. His natural disposition being amiable and virtuous, he took into his service two ministers of a disposition favourable to the people; M. Turgot and the count de Maurepas. The count had been exiled from court for some caustic verses against Madame de Pompadour, but was now recalled.

2. The court, alarmed at the innovations of M. Turgot, procured his dismissal. His successor M. de Clugny re-established the *corvée*, an odious feudal tax which had been abolished. On the death of M. de Clugny, his office was filled by Taboureaux des Reaux, whose system of finance increased the deficit that existed in the coffers of the state. To remedy this evil, the king appointed M. Necker, a native of Geneva, director-general of the finances. M. Necker for a time revived public credit by means of loans, but finding the coffers still unfilled, he had recourse to reforms. These measures were opposed by the nobles and clergy, who would not consent to make a single sacrifice to put an end to the embarrassment of the exchequer.

3. In 1778, when a strong feeling in favour of political and religious freedom, had been excited by the writings of the philosophers, with Voltaire and Rousseau at their head; when the pomp and parade of royalty, the crafty acts of the clergy, the reckless profligacy of the court, the abuses of the law, and the inequality of the system of taxation, had all been inveighed against, by those popular and eloquent writers, the court of Versailles

blindly accelerated its own downfall, by forming an alliance with the revolutionary government of America.

4. In 1781, the parliament combined against M. Necker, and obliged him to retire. At this period all parties admitted the existence of flagrant abuses, but the privileged classes were opposed to all measures of reform. The court retailed philosophical maxims while pursuing its course of reckless profligacy. The parliaments deplored the distresses of the people, but opposed the equalization of the taxes, while the endeavours of those in power to put an end to the distress of the treasury were thwarted by the extravagances of the court.

5. An intrigue brought forward M. de Colonne, who, for a short time, averted the evil day, by raising loans. He, however, soon overshot the mark, when it was discovered, that a difference of 110,000,000 livres existed between the receipt and expenditure: he next endeavoured to increase the revenue by means of a general and fairly adjusted land tax, from which there should be no exemptions. To carry this plan into execution, he advised the king to couvoker the assembly of the notables, (a name given to a former meeting of distinguished persons in 1626). Louis assented to this advice in December 1786, and in February 1787, the assembly met. During the short period of its sitting, which was only till the 25th of May, 1787, it by no means answered the purposes for which it had been convoked.

6. M. de Colonne was now dismissed. His successor M. de Brienne archbishop of Thoulouse, inconsiderately involved his sovereign in another unpleasant contest with the parliament, who now demanded the convocation of the states-general (a measure that had not been called into operation since 1614), declared itself incompetent to grant imposts, affirming that to the states-general alone belonged the right of establishing them, and ordered inquiry into the prodigalities of Calonne. These and other acts of opposition irritated the prelate-minister, who instantly procured a decision in council, which annulled its decree, and exiled it to Troyes. At this period great disturbances were created by a party, headed by the duke of Orleans styled the American party, as affecting the principles of American independence.

7. M. de Brienne, being destitute of supplies, entered into negotiations with some of the members of parliament, his conditions were a loan of 40,000,000 livres, payable by

instalments in four years, at the expiration of which the states-general should be invoked. Having made sure of some members, Brienne imagined he was certain of the whole. The parliament was recalled, and a royal sitting was held by the king in person on the 20th September, 1787. It was not known whether this sitting was a bed of justice or not. A profound silence prevailed, when the duke of Orleans asked the king if this sitting was a bed of justice or a free deliberation. It is a royal sitting, replied the king. The councillors Tretean, Sabatier, and d'Expremenil declaimed after the duke of Orleans with their usual violence; the registration of the edict enacting the creation of the loan was immediately enforced, Tretean, Sabatier, and the duke of Orleans, were exiled, and the states-general postponed for five years.

8. Hostilities still continued. In January, 1784; the parliament passed a decree against *lettres de cachet*, and for the recall of exiled persons. The king cancelled this decree, and the parliament again confirmed it. The minister endeavoured to reduce the power of the parliament by the appointment of a *cour plénière*, consisting of persons selected by the king, from the principal nobility and officers of state. The court sat long enough to enforce the ministerial decrees, but the determined opposition of the nation soon compelled the king to abandon the scheme. He dismissed his minister, and recalled M. Necker (1788.)

9. It was during the years 1777 and 1778, that the nation became desirous to pass from vain theories to practice; the struggles between the highest authorities excited the wish, and furnished the occasion to do so. The parliament finding its existence attacked by the court, apprised the nation of its rights, and exhorted the people to arm in behalf of their privileges; the clergy facilitated and protected insurrection; the nobility fomented the disobedience of the troops, and the court finding itself attacked on all sides, endeavoured to frustrate the schemes of the higher orders, by convoking the states-general, and though previously hostile to the philosophic spirit, it now courted its favours, and submitted the constitutions of the kingdom to its investigation; such was the state of affairs when Necker returned to the ministry.

10. At this period, when all parties were anxious for the meeting of the states-general, a question arose as to how the commons, or *tiers état*, were to be made powerful enough to annul the exemption of the nobility and clergy.

To attain this object, the council decreed that the *tiers état* should be composed of members equal in number to the nobility and clergy.

11. The states general, consisting of the nobility and clergy, and *tiers état*, met May 5, 1789. The king made a patriotic speech, and the privileged classes expressed a willingness to concede to the wishes of the nation; but there were other grounds upon which they seemed likely to be at variance with the *tiers état*. It became a question whether the verification of the powers of the members should take place in common, or by separate orders. The deputies of the *tiers état*, desirous of obliterating all traces of distinction in their legislative capacity, insisted on the verification in common. The nobility and clergy, strongly attached to the division of orders, maintained that each ought to constitute itself apart. This led to an open rupture, and the *tiers état*, tired of waiting for the concurrence of the other orders, resolved itself into the national assembly, as forming a national representation one and indivisible. These measures speedily brought over the clergy, and compelled the king, after an ineffectual struggle of four days, to sanction the union, and request the nobility to join the national assembly in one common hall, which they at length did with much reluctance.

12. At this period, Paris was in a state of fearful excitement, the boldest harangues were delivered in the coffee-houses, and by the supposed tools of the duke of Orleans, in the gardens of the Palais Royal. An over severe discipline and other injudicious regulations, produced symptoms of insubordination among the privates of the French guards; many of them were in consequence confined in the Abbaye; the populace proceeded thither, forced the gates of the prison, and released them. The king, upon the petition of the assembly, pardoned the prisoners.

13. The nobility stung by the success and popularity of the assembly, formed a secret conspiracy to overthrow it by force of arms, to which end a large force of foreign troops were introduced into Paris and its environs. The king was but partially acquainted with their designs. The popular deputies foreseeing that violence was premeditated, turned their attention to the means of resistance. Mirabeau, who gave the impulse to the popular party, proposed an address to the king, requesting the removal of the foreign troops, which was voted with only four dis-

sentient voices. The address was presented by twenty-four members. The king, in answer, assured them that the troops were assembled for no other purpose than that of preserving the public tranquillity, and protecting the assembly. This answer by no means appeased the suspicions of the assembly. Mirabeau was for again addressing the king, but finding his opinion opposed, he is said to have resorted to secret machinations.

14. On the 11th of July, the king, influenced by the nobility, dismissed M. Necker. This unpopular act, which became known in Paris on the following day, exasperated the populace; they hurried to the Palais Royal, stripped the trees of their leaves and formed them into cockades, which they wore. From thence they proceeded to the museum, seized the busts of Necker and the duke of Orleans, and then spread themselves into various parts of Paris. In the Rue St. Honoré, the German troops fired upon them, several persons were wounded, among whom was a soldier of the French guards; his comrades flew to arms, and fired upon the Royal Germans; the latter instantly fell back upon the gardens of the Tuileries, charged the people, who were quietly walking there, and amidst the confusion, killed an old man. Terror was now changed into fury. *To arms! to arms!* resounded through the city; weapons were procured from the Hôtel de Ville; the citizens instantly assembled to consult on the best means of protecting themselves alike from the fury of the populace, and the attack of the royal troops. During the night the populace burned the barriers, dispersed the gatekeepers, and offered free access by all the avenues to the city which was quickly filled by ferocious brigands (men of the lowest grade, who lived by robbing and begging), armed with pikes and bludgeons.

15. On the morning of the 13th, the citizens again met and formed themselves into a civic militia; the French guards and the night watch offered their services, and were duly enrolled. They wore red and blue cockades, to distinguish them from the mass, who wore green ones. The populace now showed itself hostile to robbery, took nothing but arms, and itself apprehended the brigands.

11. During the night the utmost confusion prevailed; the citizens believing themselves betrayed, unpaved the streets, opened the trenches, and took all possible measures for resisting a siege. Meanwhile, consternation

prevailed in the assembly; it expressed its regret at the departure of M. Necker, and sent several deputations to the king, for the purpose of informing him of the alarming state of Paris, and requesting the removal of the foreign troops, but to no purpose.

17. At this moment the queen was seen flattering the officers and soldiers, and causing refreshments to be distributed among them; in fact, a plan to overthrow the rising supremacy of the assembly and the people, had been devised for the night between the 14th and 15th. Paris was to be attacked on seven points, the Palais Royal to be surrounded, the assembly dissolved, the declaration of the 23rd of June submitted to the parliament, and the wants of the exchequer supplied by bankruptcy and paper money.

18. On the morning of the 14th, nearly every person in Paris was armed; a cry was now raised, *Let us storm the Bastile!* A large concourse of people instantly repaired thither and commenced the attack; others proceeded to the Hotel des Invalides, and procured cannon, and a quantity of muskets. A deputy of a district solicited admittance, and obtained it. During the parley, the people discovered that the guns of the fortress were pointed towards the city. Shortly after the return of the deputy, fresh multitudes arrived with arms, shouting, *Down with the Bastile!* The garrison summoned the assailants to retire, but they persisted; two soldiers mounted the guard-house, and with an axe, severed the chains of the outward draw-bridge. The populace rushed in and ran to a second bridge, with the intention of passing it in the like manner. A discharge of musketry from the garrison drove them back; two deputations from the electors at the Hotel de Ville (the seat of the city authorities) arrived, the firing for a time was suspended, the deputies advanced. During their conference with the commandant of the fortress, musket-shots were fired from some unknown quarter; the people suspecting they were betrayed, rushed forward to set fire to the building, the garrison in return fired upon them with grape-shot, whereupon the French guards, who were favourably disposed towards the people, commenced a formal attack with the cannon. The governor perceiving he could not hold out against such a phalanx as opposed him, endeavoured to blow up the fortress, but the garrison prevented him, and obliged him

to surrender. The people rushed in, took possession of all the courts, seized the governor and several others, and proceeded with them towards the Hôtel de Ville. They had scarcely arrived, when the populace tore them from the hands of those who held them in safe custody, and killed them on the spot. Thus fell the Bastile, which had for so long played the game of the court with its *lettres de cachet*.

19. Flesselles, the provost of the trades, who, the day before, had grossly deceived the people, by sending them chests filled with old linen, instead of the 12,000 muskets which he had promised them, next fell a prey to the indignation of the excited multitude, on his road to the Palais Royal, where he was to have been tried for his treachery. He was killed by a pistol shot, fired by a person unknown.

20. The king, alarmed at these proceedings, hastened to the assembly, made a patriotic speech, and ordered the immediate recall of M. Necker. The death of Flesselles, and the refusal of the duke d'Aumont to accept the command of the civic militia, left the appointment of provost and commandant-general to be filled up. Bailly, the virtuous president of the assembly, was appointed successor to Flesselles, with the title of Mayor of Paris, and the marquis de Lafayette was proclaimed commandant of the militia, which now assumed the name of the national guard, and adopted the tricoloured cockade.

21. The king, in spite of the resistance of the queen and court, now repaired to Paris. On his arrival at the Hôtel de Ville, he passed under an arch of swords, crossed over his head as a mark of honour. When he returned, the queen embraced him as though she had been afraid that she should never see him again. On the day of the king's entry into Paris, the count d'Artois, and the whole family of the Polignacs, quitted France; a fatal example of defection, which being speedily followed by a general emigration of the noblesse, produced the most disastrous consequences.

22. The great dearth of corn which now prevailed much augmented the general disorganisation. The country people, impelled by want, and the success of the people of the towns, refused to pay the feudal dues, flew to arms, attacked the landowners, set fire to their mansions, and committed many acts of atrocious revenge. The aristoc-

racy, unable to prevent what it termed the evil, urged the people on to the greatest extremes, in order to bring about good by the very excess of that evil.

23. Though the assembly was divided at this period into two parties, the aristocrats, that supported the privileged orders, and the democrats, such as advocated the cause of political and religious freedom, there existed among them a class of moderate men who belonged to neither party, and who voted for all measures which they deemed beneficial to the country at large.

24. On the 4th of August, 1795, after the assembly had determined that the famous declaration of the rights of man should be placed at the head of the new constitution, the committee made its report on the disturbances, and the means of suppressing them. Two members of the nobility declared that the right way to restore order was not to employ force against the people, but to destroy the cause of their suffering, by abolishing feudal and all other vexatious rights. A landowner then appeared in the tribune, in the garb of a farmer, and drew an appalling picture of the feudal system, which produced such a sudden paroxysm of disinterestedness, that the nobility, the clergy, and, in fact, all the possessors of prerogatives of every kind hastened to the tribune to renounce them. Some having no personal privileges to relinquish, gave up those of the provinces and towns, while others proffered their zeal in favour of the public weal. It was now near midnight, the excitement had become general. Several of the deputies became alarmed, and endeavoured to break up the sitting. In fact, many of the privileged persons, so far from being sincere, were only desirous to make matters worse. At length a deputy moved that the king should be proclaimed *restorer of French liberty!* which was carried by acclamations. It was next resolved that the *Té Deum* should be sung, after which the assembly broke up.

25. On this memorable night the assembly decreed the abolition of every subject matter of complaint. Feudal, ecclesiastical, and corporate rights were at one stroke swept away, while persons of every rank and description were pronounced eligible to all civil, military, and ecclesiastical appointments.

26. These measures had only been passed in a general form; they were next embodied in decrees, and, after

much opposition, especially from the clergy, passed *pro forma*. On the 11th, they were presented to the king, who attended the *Te Deum*, and returned the assembly thanks for the title they had bestowed upon him.

27. While these matters were in agitation, the aristocracy devised a plan to carry off the king. Their plot was detected by the popular party. Commotions ensued in Paris, which were heightened by the scarcity of provisions. On the 4th of October, a number of women, of the lowest grade, proceeded to the Hôtel de Ville, to complain that the bakers could not supply them with bread. They rushed upon a battalion of the national guard, drove it back with a volley of stones, and forced an entrance. A number of brigands armed with pikes hurried in along with them, took possession of the door leading to the great bell, and sounded the tocsin; the faux-bourgs instantly were in motion. Millard, a citizen, who had signalized himself at the siege of the Bastile, took a drum and cleared the Hôtel de Ville of these furious women, by telling them he would take them to Versailles.

28. When they arrived at the environs of Paris, he endeavoured to disperse them, but they forced him to lead them on. They arrived at Versailles shortly after three o'clock. The assembly was sitting; thither they proceeded. Millard addressed the assembly, and informed them what had happened. He was told that measures had been adopted to provide Paris with an increased supply of provisions, that the king had neglected nothing; and that he and his followers must immediately retire, as insurrection only increased their distress. Millard left the assembly, and proceeded to the palace, accompanied by twelve of the women. The king received them graciously, and deplored their distress. They were deeply affected; one of them awed by the presence of the monarch, could scarcely utter the word *Bread*; the king embraced her, and the women retired much softened by his kind reception. They returned to their companions, and related what had happened, but they would not believe them; declared they had allowed themselves to be tampered with, and commenced tearing them to pieces. A body of life-guards hastened to their assistance, a skirmish ensued, shots were fired, and several of the women wounded. The king sent orders to his guards not to fire, and to retire to their hotel. At

this moment an attempt was made, contrary to her majesty's wish, to send off the queen and the children, but the populace would not allow the carriages to proceed.

29. Lafayette, finding that the insurrection had transferred itself to Versailles, at length deemed it his duty to follow it thither. On his road he halted his army, and made it swear to be faithful to the king. On his arrival, the outer posts were entrusted to his charge. He spent the whole night in sending out patrols, and restoring order. At five in the morning all seemed quiet; he took some refreshment, and threw himself on a bed to obtain a little repose. Shortly afterwards the people thronged to the environs of the palace; a quarrel ensued with the life-guards, one of them fired from the windows of the palace; the brigands instantly rushed on, passed a gate which in the confusion had been left open, ascended the staircase, and entered the queen's room, a few moments after she had left it. Enraged at finding their victim escaped, they pierced the bed with their weapons. Lafayette, hearing the tumult, mounted a horse, and rushed into the thick of the fray, saved the lives of several of the life-guards, and soon succeeded in quelling the fury of the populace. At this moment the life-guards shouted, Lafayette for ever! and the whole court declared that to him they owed their lives.

30. It was now decided that the court should comply with the wish of the people, and instantly repair to Paris. Slips of paper to this effect was thrown out of the windows, to appease the multitude. The king, accompanied by Lafayette, showed himself at the balcony. The people delighted at this reconciliation, shouted, Long live the king! Long live Lafayette! The queen, and every one of the life-guards, went through the same ceremony, which filled the people with ecstasy.

31. As soon as the assembly was apprised of the intended departure of the king, it passed a resolution purporting that the assembly was inseparable from the sovereign, and immediately nominated 100 deputies to accompany his majesty to Paris. The king received the resolution, and at one o'clock left Versailles. The principal portion of the populace had already gone, and Lafayette had sent after them a detachment of troops to prevent them from returning; he also ordered the

heads of two life-guards men, which the brigands were carrying on pikes, to be taken from them. It is not true that these horrid trophies were carried before the carriage of the king. On their arrival at Paris, the royal family repaired to the palace of the Tuileries; the guard of it was confined to the Parisian militia.

32. The formation of the new constitution was prosecuted with activity. On the 2nd of November, 1789, the assembly destroyed the formidable power of the clergy, by declaring that all ecclesiastical property belonged to the state. At the same time it provided for the subsistence of the *curés*, by resolving that their salaries should not be less than 1,200 francs per year, with the use of a parsonage house and garden. The division of the territory of the kingdom next occupied the attention of the assembly. The provinces, into which France had for ages been divided, materially differed from each other in laws, privileges, and manners. In order to annihilate these unequal demarcations, and introduce the same laws and customs throughout the kingdom, the assembly decreed on the 15th of January, 1790, that France should be divided into eighty-three departments, which were again divided into districts, and the districts into municipalities. In all these degrees the principle of representation was admitted. Every citizen, whose age was not less than twenty-five years, and who paid contributions to the amount of one silver mark, was decreed eligible to the full enjoyment of political rights.

33. At this period a rumour prevailed that a plot had been formed against the assembly and the municipality, that Bailly and Lafayette were to have been assassinated, and the king carried off. The marquis de Favras was apprehended on suspicion. The accusing witnesses on his trial furnished precise particulars of his scheme for the murder of Bailly and Lafayette, and the abduction of the king. He was found guilty, and executed at midnight. This trial revived the suspicion against the court.

34. On the 4th of February, the king, in order to suppress the prevalent agitation, proceeded to the assembly in person, and in a patriotic speech pledged himself to promote the establishment of the new organization, and exhorted the nation to follow his example.

The president made a short reply, and the enthusiastic multitude escorted him back to the Tuileries. As the king had engaged to uphold the new constitution, the deputies determined to bind themselves to the same. The civic oath was proposed, and every deputy came forward to swear to be faithful *to the nation, the law, and to the king; and to uphold with all his power the constitution decreed by the national assembly, and accepted by the king.* The deputies of commerce next took the oath, which was repeated by the tribunes, the galleries at the Hôtel de Ville, and by commune after commune throughout France. The occasion was celebrated by rejoicings which appeared to be general and sincere. Though this was a fair occasion for the court to commence a new line of conduct, it doggedly persisted in its old course of opposition. On the same evening that Paris was illuminated with bonfires in celebration of the happy event, the popular deputies received from the court a reception wholly different from that which was reserved for the noble deputies.

35. On the 16th June, the assembly abolished hereditary titles, and every distinction of rank to which the king gave his immediate sanction. In the following November, M. Necker, whose want of tact had deprived him of the confidence of the king and the assembly, tendered his resignation, which was accepted by all parties with pleasure. The same populace which had before drawn him in triumph, now stopped his carriage, and compelled him to procure an order from the assembly, directing that he should be allowed to quit the country, ere they would permit him to proceed.

36. In November, a decree was passed by which all those of the clergy who refused to swear to the new order of things, were ejected from their benefices. Most of them declined doing so. Commotions ensued, the bishops and the revolutionists intrigued, the one to prevent, and the other to cause the oath to be taken. An organized conspiracy against the assembly was detected at Lyons; its principal agents were discovered and delivered up to justice. On the 28th of February, the populace attacked the castle at Vincennes, which the authorities had appropriated for the reception of prisoners. Lafayette arrived in time to thwart their intentions, and compelled them to disperse. On the rumour of a commotion, the nobles,

with concealed arms, assembled at the Tuileries. The national guard became alarmed, and maltreated some of them. The king ordered them to lay down their arms. Lafayette hastened to the spot, and speedily cleared the palace, and seized the weapons. The nobles engaged in this affray were afterwards named the knights of the dagger.

37. The king, unable to endure the great reduction of his prerogatives by the assembly, now determined upon flight. The secret was entrusted to Mirabeau, who undertook to set the royal family at liberty, but death prevented him from carrying his designs into execution. The baron de Breteuil next concerted a plan to enable the royal family to retire to Montmedy, where, in case of need, they might receive foreign aid. The king consented to this measure with reluctance. Every thing was arranged for the 20th of June, but some alarm caused the journey to be deferred to the evening of the 21st, a delay which proved fatal to this unfortunate family. The secret was entrusted to those persons only, who were indispensable for its execution. Lafayette, and even M. de Montmorin, though possessing the confidence of the court, knew nothing whatever of the plan. The king, accompanied by the queen and family, quitted Paris in disguise, travelled during the night between the 21st and 22nd unmolested, and had actually proceeded near the frontiers, when he was recognized by Drouet, son of the postman at St. Menehould, a violent revolutionist. This young man, being unable to cause the detention of the carriage at St. Menehould, posted off to Varennes with such speed that he arrived there before the ill fated family. He immediately gave information to the municipality, and then hastened to an archway, through which the carriage was obliged to pass. When it arrived, Drouet stopped the horses, demanded their passport, and, with a loaded musket, threatened the travellers if they persisted in proceeding. The order was complied with, Drouet took the passport, and said it must be examined by the solicitor of the commune. The royal family was then conducted to the solicitor's house, where they were fully identified. The solicitor, on examining their passport, pretended to find it all right, and politely begged the king to wait. When a sufficient number of the national guard were assembled,

he threw off all disguise, and informed the monarch that he was recognised, and apprehended. An altercation ensued, Louis declared he had no intention of leaving France, and begged that he might be allowed to proceed to Montmedy. Some troops, which had been stationed at different points to cover the royal retreat now arrived. The royal family considered itself as saved, but they declared they were for the nation. Meanwhile the national guards were collected together from the environs, and filled Varennes. The whole night was passed in this state. At six in the morning, a message arrived with the decree of the assembly, whereupon the royal family immediately entered the carriage, and were conveyed back to Paris, where they had been but a short time missing.

37. The assembly on hearing of the apprehension of the royal fugitives, immediately caused a public notice to be distributed and posted: *Whoever applauds the king shall be flogged. Whoever insults him shall be hanged*; which was punctually obeyed. The king's brothers were more fortunate; though they left Paris at the same time they escaped by taking different routes.

38. The journey to Varennes almost annihilated the remaining power of the king. On the very morning of his arrival, the assembly had provided for everything. It was also decreed that the king should be suspended from his functions; that a guard, responsible for their safe custody, should be placed over the king, queen, and dauphin; and that three deputies should take the declarations of the king and queen. Louis assigned as his motive for flight, a desire to make himself better acquainted with the state of public opinion. He asserted that he had learnt much on that head during the journey, and assured the assembly that, as the general will was now clearly manifested to him, he did not hesitate to make all the sacrifice necessary for the public welfare. On the 16th of July the commissioners made their report on the affair of Varennes. After a lengthened discussion, it was resolved that the king could not be brought to trial on account of the flight. This resolution much displeased the people, who had now become exceedingly anxious for a republic. *No king!* was the general cry in the newspapers, in the streets, and at the political clubs.

39. On the evening prior to the decision of the assembly, a commotion had taken place at the celebrated Jacobite club. A petition was there drawn up, praying the assembly to depose the king as a traitor. It was carried on the following day to the Champ de Mars, where all who wished might sign it on the altar of the country. At this moment the decree was passed by the assembly, so that it was now too late to petition. The crowd, however, which was now very great, showed no desire to disperse. Lafayette at length arrived, and while endeavouring to restore order, was fired at, but escaped unhurt. In the confusion two invalids who happened to be under the altar of the country, were murdered, which caused the tumult to increase to such an alarming extent, that the assembly charged the municipality to preserve the public tranquillity. Bailly hastened to the scene of confusion, and, though fired at several times, ordered the red flag to be unfurled, and summoned the agitators to retire. Lafayette next caused a few shots to be fired in the air, which drove a portion of the crowd back, but it soon rallied. Thus driven to extremity, he at length gave the word, *Fire!* The first discharge killed several of the agitators, and the rest became alarmed, and speedily dispersed.

40. The assembly having nearly completed the constitution, now passed a resolution that none of its members should be re-elected. The left side next entertained a desire to revive and amend certain parts of the constitution. In fact, several of the leading democrats had determined among themselves to increase the prerogatives of the crown, for which purpose, they proposed that the constitution should be carefully read throughout, in order to have an opportunity to make its different parts harmonize. But their intentions were thwarted by the injudicious protest of the aristocrats, who now determined to vote no more, and thus rendered accommodation impossible, as it was only by the aid of the aristocrats that a majority could possibly be obtained. The constitution was therefore completed in haste, and submitted to the king for his acceptance, who from this time was allowed full liberty to act as he pleased. After a few days had transpired, he declared that he accepted the constitution, and proceeded to the assembly, where he met with a most cordial reception. A general amnesty from

all acts connected with the revolution was immediately proclaimed; the prisons thrown open, amidst shouts of joy; and on the 30th of September, the constituent assembly declared that it had terminated its sittings. During the three years of its existence, it enacted 1,300 laws or decrees relative to the general administration of the state.

41. The constituent assembly was succeeded by the national legislative assembly, which consisted of entirely new members, and commenced its sitting on the 1st of October. The new assembly was almost wholly made up of persons holding republican principles, and like the old one, was soon divided into three parties: the ultra revolutionists, or mountain party, most of whom belonged to the jacobite club; the more moderate revolutionists or girondins; and those that belonged to no party, but voted for such measures as they deemed beneficial to the state at large. The clubs at this period had acquired extraordinary importance, that of the jacobites from its seniority and violence maintained an ascendancy over all others. Here Robespierre, whom the decree of non-election had excluded from the national assembly, ruled by the dogmatism of his opinions, and a reputation for integrity which gained him the epithet of incorruptible. Though the girondins, with Brissot at their head, had for a time a majority in the assembly, they were soon vanquished by the hot-headed democrats who were all-powerful in the clubs. Lafayette had resigned all command of the army, and retired to his country-seat. His post was filled by six chiefs of legion, who commanded by turn the whole national guard. Bailly likewise resigned the mayoralty, which was conferred on Pétion, who constantly served the republicans against the court.

42. As the emigrants were now endeavouring to effect a counter revolution, the king, by the advice of his ministers addressed exhortations to them, requesting them to return, and used his utmost endeavours to prevent a further emigration of the officers. But all his efforts were vain. The minister of war reported that 1,900 officers had deserted, whereupon the assembly passed two severe decrees, the first declared that if Monsieur, the king's brother failed to return in two months, he should lose his eventual right to the regency. The second,

which was levelled against the emigrants in general, declared that if on the 1st of January next, they still continued assembled, they should be considered as conspirators, and punished with death. The king assented to the decree against his brother, but affixed his veto to that against the emigrants in general, which caused much discontent. On the following day, the king addressed a proclamation to the emigrants, and two separate letters to his brothers beseeching them to return, but to no purpose.

43. Religious disturbances having broken out in the west, the assembly passed a severe decree against all the clergy who refused to take the civic oath. The King, who had always reproached himself for having sanctioned the more mild decree of the late assembly, immediately determined to oppose this measure. Meanwhile the assembly, hearing of the devastation committed by the emigrants commanded by the prince of Condé, passed a decree for disarming them; whereupon the king proceeded to the assembly in person, and in a patriotic speech gave assurances of his determination to quell the insurrection, and declared that if found necessary, he should propose war. The assembly expressed its admiration of the king's conduct, by ordering the speech to be sent to the eighty-three departments. Advantage was taken of the satisfaction produced by this event to notify the *veto* affixed to the decree against the clergy, which was received in the assembly without a murmur.

44. At this period, Austria and Prussia began to interfere in behalf of the royal family. The duke of Brunswick, commander of the combined forces, issued a violent manifesto against the French nation, which did much injury to the cause it advocated. The assembly boldly declared war against those powers, and made every preparation to resist all counter-revolutionary projects.

45. Reports having reached the assembly that the nonjuring clergy were abusing the secrecy of confession, to kindle discord and fanaticism, they passed a very severe decree against them, and also one for the formation of a camp of 20,000 men near Paris. The king opposed these measures: serious disturbances ensued. Lafayette, perceiving the danger which surrounded the royal family, formed a plan for their escape, but unfortunately, the queen, who detested Lafayette thwarted his intentions, the

project was detected by the assembly, and Lafayette denounced by the populace as a traitor.

46. The disturbances in Paris became daily more alarming ; in fact, Petion the mayor did not attempt to suppress them. On the 10th of August 1792, the Tuileries were attacked and stormed : the king and his family escaped by going to the assembly. History blushes to record the excesses committed on this occasion by the populace, whose movements were principally directed by Danton, Robespierre, and Marat. Seven hundred and fifty of the Swiss guards, and nearly all the royal domestics fell a prey to the infuriated rioters, who, the instant they made themselves masters of the palace, ransacked every corner from the roof to the cellars. Bureaus were broken open, furniture was torn to pieces and thrown out of the windows, the lifeless bodies were many of them stripped, and most indecently maltreated ; in fact, the whole presented one horrid scene of devastation and death. Nothing was left uninjured, but the paintings and statuary.

47. On the following day the king was suspended from his functions, and under the pretence of guardianship, he and his family were transferred as prisoners to the old palace of the Temple, until (to use the language of the occasion), measures had been adopted to confirm the sovereignty of the people, and the reign of liberty and equality.

48. At this period of political disorganisation, the advance of the combined troops of Austria and Prussia into France, alarmed the ultra-revolutionists, who raised a cry that the royalists were about to break open the prisons and release their friends. This caused the speedy formation of a tribunal, styled the judges of the people, who seated round a table at the entrance of the prisons, condemned upwards of 5,000 prisoners, many of whom were persons of rank, to death. These massacres commenced on the 2nd of September 1792, and continued till the evening of the 6th. Similar deeds of blood were perpetrated in other parts of the kingdom, as well as at Paris. An immense carnage was exhibited at Versailles on the 9th September. The perpetrators of those horrid deeds were jocosely named *Septembrizers*, and most of them were paid for their services.

49. On the 21st of September the legislative assembly, after passing between the 1st of October 1791 and the pre-

sent day 2140 decrees relative to administration, closed its sitting, and was succeeded by the national convention. On the first day of its sitting, the convention abrogated the constitution and declared France a republic; shortly afterward they offered aid and protection to the people of all those nations that might desire to overthrow their governments, and decreed the penalty of death against all who should propose or attempt to restore royalty in France.

50. On the 11th of December the king appeared before the convention on a charge of what they termed treason against the constitution, which he had sworn to defend; he conducted himself with great firmness, and declared boldly that his conscience fully acquitted him of the things laid to his charge. But his enemies turned a deaf ear to his defence. It was resolved that the decision of the case should rest with the national representatives; and when the convention met for that purpose on the 15th of January 1793, only thirty-seven members were inclined to think favourably of his conduct, while 683 eagerly pronounced him guilty. His advocates moved an appeal to the people; but it was overruled by a majority of 139. The question of punishment was next discussed, when 361, or according to some accounts 366, members voted promptly for death. It was also voted by a majority of seventy, that the king was to be informed of the result of their proceedings, and to suffer death in twenty-four hours afterwards; and finally, on the motion of Robespierre, the decree was pronounced irrevocable. Louis XVI. was conveyed to the place of execution on the 21st of Jan., 1793. On the scaffold he attempted to address the crowd, but the drums were made to sound louder, and he was rudely ordered to be silent. In a moment after, his head was severed from his body by the guillotine, and exhibited to the people as the head of a tyrant and traitor.

51. In 1792, Gen. Dumouriez, at the head of the French army, after compelling the duke of Brunswick to retreat from France, gained a complete victory over the Austrians at Jemappe, which led to the speedy reduction of the whole of the Netherlands. In the beginning of 1793 France declared war against England, Spain, and Holland. For a time the French lost their conquests as fast as they had acquired them; but before the close of the year they

succeeded in regaining their ascendancy in Flanders, and drove the Austrians completely within their own frontiers.

52. The horrors of civil war now raged in Paris. The mountain party or jacobites, headed by Robespierre, became the ruling faction, and imprisoned and mercilessly destroyed all whom they considered their enemies. Paris daily witnessed the execution of the most respectable of its citizens by that fatal instrument the guillotine, which seemed to have been timely invented for the quick and incessant course of decapitation now adopted. In May, 1793, the leaders of the girondins were arrested, and on the 31st of October following, all executed. Brissot himself saw sixteen of his party guillotined before it came to his turn, and four were executed afterwards. Though all the leading powers of Europe now armed against the convention, the reign of terror still continued; the royalists in La Vendée, who dared to oppose the revolutionary decrees, were, after an obstinate contest, conquered by the troops of the convention, who cruelly slaughtered the inhabitants.

53. The widow of Louis Capet, as the French republicans now called their queen, suffered death by the guillotine on the 16th of October. On the day of her execution, she was conveyed to the scaffold in a common cart, with her hands tied behind her, amidst the shouts and insults of the infuriated multitude. Thus died, in the 38th year of her age, the once beautiful Marie Antoinette, who, though not so free from the crimes attributed to her as some have supposed, certainly deserved a better fate. Her body was immediately interred; and in order to prevent the royalists from removing it, her grave was, like that of her consort, filled with quick lime.

54. The extinction of the regal power in France by no means satisfied the capricious cruelty of the jacobins; General Custine, Madame Roland, M. Bailly, (late mayor of Paris,) the duke of Orleans, and many other distinguished persons, were guillotined towards the close of the year 1793. In the November of this memorable year, the convention, at the instance of Chaumette, one of the leaders of the municipality, and Gobet, archbishop of Paris, publicly abjured christianity, and decreed the worship of reason in its stead. The churches were quickly despoiled of their ornaments, liberty and equality consecrated as objects of worship, and religious festivals substituted by

civic festivities ; the calendar was also corrected, and a new era instituted, to commence from the 22d of September, 1792, the day on which the king was deposed, and the republic commenced ; the sabbath was abolished, and each month divided into three decades, the first days of which were festivals or days of rest.

55. On May 10, 1794, Madame Elizabeth was guillotined by order of the revolutionary tribunal ; on the 27th of July, Tallien courageously moved that Robespierre the elder, Robespierre the younger, St. Just, Couthon, Le Bas, (deputies,) and Henriot, commandant of the armed forces at Paris, should be arrested for treason and tyranny, which was decreed amidst tumults of applause. On the night of July 29, they were all executed by torch-light, amidst the well-merited execrations of the populace, and on that very scaffold where they had so recently sent their victims by scores. In a few days after about 70 members of the commune also shared a similar fate.

56. Though the pain of death had been decreed against any who should attempt to set aside by word or deed the constitution of 1793, shortly after the death of Robespierre a new constitution was framed, which the convention formally accepted and proclaimed September 23, 1795. This, the third constitution established since 1789, vested the legislative power in two councils ; the one consisting of 500 members, was styled *the council of five hundred* ; the other of 150 members, named *the council of the ancients* ; the executive power was delegated to a directory of five members chosen by the legislature ; one of the directors, and one-third of each chamber was to go out annually, and be replaced by the election of others.

57. At this period the royalist party who, since the death of Robespierre, had become more powerful, broke out in resistance to the new constitution ; on the 5th of October, 1795, they were defeated with great slaughter in the streets of Paris by the troops under Bonaparte, who having distinguished himself in the French army by an extraordinary display of skill and courage in the recapture of Toulon in 1793, now became a general of the *executive directory*.

58. The death of Robespierre having placed affairs in the hands of more moderate men, the jacobite club was closed, the exercise of the catholic religion authorised, and many extreme jacobite decrees repealed.

59. Though discord still reigned at home, the arms of

France were pretty generally successful abroad. Lord Howe had indeed destroyed the French fleet off Ushant in June 1794, and several West Indian islands were about the same period taken by the British ; but by the beginning of 1795 Holland was entirely overrun, the stadtholder compelled to seek an asylum in England, and the country, under the name of the Batavian republic, incorporated with France ; Prussia was forced to a humiliating peace, and corresponding triumphs in Spain led to an offensive and defensive alliance with that country.

60. The campaign of 1796 opened with great vigour—numerous battles were fought in Germany with various success—but it was in Italy that the French army, commanded by Bonaparte, achieved the most brilliant successes. Between the 11th and 15th of April, Bonaparte beat the Austrian army, commanded by General Beauharnais, in three distinct engagements at Montenotte, Millesimo, and Dego ; after which he overran and plundered the states of Northern Italy, captured the strong city of Mantua (Feb. 2, 1797), and from thence instantly crossed the Alps, marched at once upon Vienna, and forced the emperor of Austria to negotiate, which terminated by a treaty of peace between France and Austria, signed at Campo-Formio (October 17, 1797). By this treaty the Austrian Netherlands were ceded to France, and Mantua, Milan, Bologna, Modena, and Ferrara formed into a French dependency, named the Cisalpine Republic. To Austria was given the whole of the Venetian States, and by a secret article Austria agreed to abandon the German empire ; Geneva was shortly afterwards converted into the Ligurian Republic. In February, 1798, Rome was taken possession of, the Pope dethroned, and the Roman republic proclaimed, while Switzerland, after a desperate struggle, was compelled to submit to the troops of the convention and accept a new constitution on the model of that of France.

61. A secret naval expedition, under the command of Bonaparte, had been for some time preparing. In 1798 it set sail for Egypt, took possession of Malta on its way thither, and having safely eluded the English squadron under Nelson, landed the troops near Alexandria, which city they took by storm while the fleet remained at anchor in Aboukir Bay. Though now shut up within the limits of Egypt, Bonaparte still marched onwards, and soon made himself master of the entire country ; from thence pene-

trated into Syria, succeeded in taking many fortresses, and at length laid siege to the town of Acre. Here he met with a most formidable foe in the captains and crews of a few English vessels, commanded by Sir Sidney Smith, who defended the place with such courage and activity as to force him to raise the siege. He then returned to Egypt, where he received letters to inform him that the Austrians, aided by a Russian army under Suwarrow, had succeeded in recovering possession of Italy, and to press his immediate return. At this period a large Turkish army had landed at Aboukir and taken possession of the fort, which he immediately attacked, and after many severe encounters completely annihilated (July 1799). He then embarked clandestinely for France, leaving his army under the command of General Kleber; and after miraculously escaping the numerous English cruizers, arrived at Frégus on the 13th of October, was received in Paris on the 16th amidst the acclamations of the people; and, on learning the state of affairs, immediately perceived that nothing short of a grand effort could save France from ruin. He soon made up his mind to the action, and on the 10th of November, aided by a few friends and his army, overturned the directory, and shortly afterwards obtained the supreme power by the title of first consul.

X.—*Great Britain from the conclusion of the American War, 1783, to the Peace of Amiens, 1802.*

1. The Shelburne ministry, by whom the peace of Paris (1783) was negotiated, was succeeded ere it had completed the work of general pacification, by the *coalition* ministry, so styled from lord North, a tory, and Mr. Fox, a whig, becoming joint secretaries of state. This abandonment of principle for power soon deprived them of the confidence and support of the nation, and it was not long before their removal was effected in consequence of a bill brought into parliament by Mr. Fox for vesting the affairs of the East India company in a board of commissioners to be chosen by parliament. Though the bill passed the commons, it was thrown out in the lords by a majority of 19, and the ministry were immediately dismissed.

2. In December, 1783, a new ministry was formed, in which Mr. Pitt, a younger son of the great lord Chatham, was appointed first lord of the treasury and chance lor of

the exchequer. At the commencement of his career, Pitt was much embarrassed by the opposition of the commons, who threatened to stop the supplies and effect his removal, as not enjoying the confidence of the nation. A dissolution of parliament was the consequence of these proceedings, and on the election the nation evinced its confidence in the young minister by returning a powerful majority in his favour. In July, 1784, Mr. Pitt brought forward his East India bill, which was found to interfere far less with the prerogative of the crown and the chartered rights of the company than the measure proposed by Mr. Fox, which many judged would throw such a power into the hands of the ministry and the commons as might enable them ultimately to set the crown and the house of lords at defiance. This bill transferred to the crown the influence Mr. Fox wished to delegate to the commons, but left the whole management of commercial affairs with the court of directors. It passed the lords August, 1784.

3. In April, 1785, Mr. Pitt moved in the house of commons for leave to bring in a bill to amend the representation of the people in parliament, which, after a long debate, was negatived by a majority of 74. Early in the following year he introduced to parliament his scheme for redeeming the national debt by means of a sinking fund. One million pounds was to be set aside annually to accumulate at a compound interest, and to be applied by commissioners appointed for the purpose to the discharge of the national debt. After some opposition and an amendment suggested by Mr. Fox, the bill passed.

4. On the 2nd of August, 1786, as the king was alighting from his carriage, Margaret Nicholson, a lunatic, approached him under pretence of offering a petition, and attempted to stab him with a knife. Fortunately his majesty received no hurt.

5. At this period the protracted proceedings against Warren Hastings, governor-general of Bengal, for alleged cruelty and robbery in India, commenced. Mr. Burke, who conducted the trial, having previously moved for papers to substantiate the charges, in April, 1786, exhibited 22 articles of impeachment against him. After much discussion they were confirmed by the commons on the 9th of May, 1787, and exhibited to the lords on the 14th. In consequence of which Hastings was taken into custody, but on the motion of the lord chancellor, admitted to bail.

The trial commenced February 15, 1788, and was not brought to a close till April, 1795. On the part of the prosecution Mr. Sheridan said—"The administration of Mr. Hastings formed a medley of meannesses and outrage, of duplicity and depredation, of prodigality and oppression, of the most callous cruelty contrasted with the hollow affectation of liberality and good faith." • Mr. Hastings in his defence declared "that he had the satisfaction to see his measures terminate in their designed object, that his political conduct was invariably regulated by truth, justice, and good faith, that he resigned his charge in a state of established peace and security, with all the sources of its abundance unimpaired and even improved." Though it appeared evident that flagrant acts of injustice and oppression had been committed in India during the period in question, Mr. Hastings was ultimately acquitted. One good, however, accrued from this trial: all succeeding governors-general have cautiously avoided such gross outrages of justice and humanity.

6. The disturbances that occurred in Holland during the year 1787, threatened the tranquillity of Europe. The house of Orange, which had been raised to power by their great services to the state, had been long opposed by a powerful party, whom the French now secretly favoured, denominated the "republican party of the states." This latter party gained such an ascendancy as to threaten the dissolution of the stadtholdership. The prince of Orange, however, applied to England and Prussia, who immediately lent their aid and speedily brought matters to a favourable issue.

7. During the session of 1788 the first attempt was made in the house of commons to abolish the African slave trade; the quakers were the first to call public attention to this inhuman traffic. Mr. Wilberforce brought the subject before the commons: but as many circumstances tended to retard its progress, the consideration of the question was deferred till a future opportunity. In 1788 the king first shewed symptoms of aberration of intellect, which gave rise to much animated discussion in parliament on the question of regency; the adoption of such measures was, however, rendered unnecessary, by his majesty's recovery in March, 1789.

8. At this period the French revolution began to attract the serious attention of Europe: it soon became ap-

parent that the multifarious abuses in the French government would drive that volatile people to great excesses, and there is no doubt that the apprehensions of similar scenes of anarchy at home, urged the ministry into a war in defence of ancient institutions. Though the government did its utmost to prevent the propagation of the principles advocated by the French assembly, a great number of democratic societies were established at this period both in England and Ireland, who kept up secret correspondence with the French, assiduously propagated their principles, and recommended their adoption.

9. The execution of Louis XVI. (Jan. 1793) was followed by the dismissal of the French minister at London, which gave such umbrage to the assembly as to induce them to immediately declare hostilities, whereupon the ministry formed alliance with the powers already at war with France. In their first campaign, the British troops obtained some signal advantages, but they ultimately met with great reverses. Though unsuccessful on land, England maintained her wonted superiority on the ocean. France lost all her colonial possessions, her fleet was beaten by lord Howe off Brest, June, 1794, and by lord Nelson in the battle of the Nile, August, 1798; the Dutch fleet was destroyed by Duncan at Camperdown, and the Spanish fleet annihilated by Jervis, 1797; the Cape of Good Hope and other important colonies were taken from Holland, and Trinidad from Spain. In 1797 a serious mutiny broke out in the channel fleet, followed by one at the Nore. Fortunately they were both speedily suppressed.

10. In 1798 an organised rebellion in Ireland occasioned great difficulties: the French revolution led to the formation of the society of "United Irishmen" in 1791, which had many changes in view, little short of a revolution. From its birth, this society had privately corresponded with the French government, which now regularly proffered its assistance to separate Ireland from England. Fortunately their plans were timely discovered, the rebellion speedily suppressed, and a body of French troops sent to aid the rebels taken prisoners.

11. While these events were going on in Europe, Tippon Saib, the sultan of Mysore in India, while professing the strongest attachment towards the English government, carried on secret correspondence with the French directory, the king of Candahar, the courts of Poonah and

Hyderabad, and even with the Ottoman Porte, for the purpose of totally extirpating British influence in India. Notwithstanding the sultan's reiterated assurances of fidelity, his duplicity became so apparent as to induce England to commence hostilities, February, 1799, which was brought to a close, May 4th, by the capture of Seringapatam, the capital of the Mysorean dominions, and the death of the sultan, who was killed while defending the fortress.

12. The situation of affairs in Ireland gave rise to the project of an incorporating union, similar to that already formed with Scotland, which, after much warm discussion in both the English and Irish parliaments, was brought to a conclusion in 1800, and the union of the two kingdoms finally arranged to take place from the first of January, 1801.

13. About this period the executive power of France was conferred on Napoleon Bonaparte, who immediately proffered peace to England, but without effect. On the Continent the campaign of 1800 was so unfavourable to Austria, as to compel the emperor to sign a treaty of peace at Luneville (Feb. 1801,) by which the French became masters of all Europe west of the Rhine and south of the Adige. In September, 1800, England succeeded in wresting Malta from the hands of the French, and in the course of the next year the British army, commanded by Sir Ralph Abercromby, which had been sent to drive the French out of Egypt, completely effected its purpose, though not without the loss of its gallant commander at the famous battle of Alexandria.

14. The procedure of Paul I. emperor of Russia, who attempted the revival amongst the northern powers of the armed neutrality now became a matter of moment to England; in fact, Russia, Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, France, Spain, Portugal, Naples, Tuscany, and Venice, all directly or indirectly countenanced the new system. In these circumstances a British squadron was despatched to the Baltic, and the battle of Copenhagen fought April 2, 1801. When further operations were suspended by the death of the emperor Paul, his son and successor Alexander I. immediately disclaimed all hostile intentions and entered into a treaty of amity with England (June 17) to which the allies immediately acceded.

15. A mutual desire for peace now manifested itself in

the belligerent countries. The dearth of corn which at this period existed in England, rendered the people very clamorous for such a consummation. Mr. Pitt, who was fully conscious that he could never make peace himself, resigned; his successor, Mr. Addington, immediately opened various negotiations, which terminated in a definitive treaty of peace, concluded at Amiens on the 25th of March, 1802. By this treaty England restored to France and her allies all her conquests except Trinidad, resigned by Spain, and Ceylon, ceded by the Dutch; Malta was to be given back to the knights of St. John, and its independence guaranteed by France, England, Russia, Spain, and Prussia.

XI.—Austria, from the conclusion of the Seven Years' War to the close of the Eighteenth Century.

1. After the peace of Hubertsberg, when with regard to Austria, the seven years' war terminated (part iii. sect. 5, § 17,) the empress assiduously employed herself in improving the condition of her people and country. She founded philosophical academies, reformed the monasteries and nunneries, restrained feudal abuses, abolished the horrible excesses of the inquisition, and suppressed the society of Jesuits. On the 27th of May, 1764, Joseph, the eldest son of Maria Theresa, was elected king of the Romans. In the following August, the emperor Francis, who from the day of his election had resigned to his imperial consort the pomp and cares of the state, died of apoplexy.

2. The empress queen, much to her discredit, became a party to the partition of that ill-fated country, Poland; she at first endeavoured to avoid leaguings with Russia and Prussia, but she ultimately joined them in their scheme of plunder; and after the partition was sanctioned by the Polish delegates nominated for that purpose, she unjustly extended her encroachments, and supported Prussia in the same attempt.

3. On the demise of the elector of Bavaria, December, 1777, the empress queen prompted her son, Joseph II. to lay claim to his dominions. The king of Prussia, though now advanced in years, found means to frustrate her designs. The question was finally and satisfactorily settled by the treaty of Teschen, 1779. By this treaty, Bavaria

resigned to Austria, the circle of Burghausen, a territory though small in extent, very important to Austria in point of situation, as it opened a passage to the Tyrol. Maria Theresa died, November 29th, 1780, in the 64th year of her age, and 41st of her reign. Her weaknesses were few, her virtues many and great; she has obtained the approbation of posterity, as being the wisest and best of her race.

4. Joseph II., who had been nominally emperor since the death of his father, Francis, now ruled in person. As long as Maria Theresa lived, she assiduously checked the ambitious and often ill-judged schemes of her son; but now that she was dead, Joseph left to the pursuit of his own too often extravagant whims and projects, commenced a series of precipitate and ill-judged reforms and innovations, which in the end were productive of bad consequences.

5. Though a great variety of laws, customs, religious opinions and language, prevailed throughout his extensive domain, which contained about 24,000,000 souls, Joseph eagerly endeavoured to break down all distinction, and establish a system of central government and uniformity of legislation. Among other regulations, he insisted upon having but one language for the whole empire, though no less than ten languages were then in common use within the confines of his dominions.

6. With his usual precipitance, he suddenly abolished feudal vassalage without any suitable arrangements for the relief of those who must evidently suffer by such an important change of tenure; he also abolished primogeniture, declared marriage, heretofore regarded as a sacrament, to be only a civil contract, rendered bastards capable of inheriting, and in October, 1781, granted a free and unreserved toleration to all sects and denominations of christians. These interferences with ecclesiastical matters much alarmed the pope, who went to Vienna, and personally remonstrated with the emperor, but his holiness effected no change in the sentiments or proceedings of Joseph.

7. In 1781, the fortifications of the barrier towns having fallen into decay, Joseph ordered them all to be done away with, except those of Luxemburgh, Ostend, Namur, and Antwerp. As the Dutch readily sanctioned this vio-

lation of the barrier treaty (part iii. sect. 3, § 1.) by withdrawing their garrisons, which the emperor had declared were no longer necessary nor entitled to pay, Joseph, under the pretence of more accurately adjusting the boundaries of the Dutch and Austrian Netherlands, next demanded from them more sweeping concessions. About the year 1784, he claimed the free navigation of the river Scheldt, for the purpose of restoring the fallen greatness of the city of Antwerp, once the emporium of Europe, by means of a direct trade to the East Indies; but as this could not be accomplished without interfering with foreign interests, and violating existing treaties, France and Prussia interfered, on behalf of the Dutch: the empress of Russia supported Joseph. The matter however, through the mediation of France, was ultimately compromised by money.

8. About the same time, Joseph negotiated with the elector of Bavaria, an exchange of the Austrian Netherlands, but equally without effect. The Germanic union brought about by Frederic of Prussia, in July, 1785, for maintaining the entirety of the Germanic body, rendered the whole scheme so impracticable, as to induce both the emperor and elector, to deny that any convention to that effect had taken place between them.

9. In 1777, Joseph, in conjunction with the empress of Russia, meditated the dismemberment of the Turkish empire. In the following year, he led a formidable army against the Turkish fortress, in the frontiers of Hungary, but his progress was opposed and his designs frustrated, by his own blunders and the valour of the Turks; he was, however, shortly afterwards more successful. In September, 1789, the combined forces of Austria and Russia, gained a decided victory over the Turks at Rimmik, which was succeeded by the capture of Belgrade, by the Austrian forces, under Landohn; but petty jealousies checked their victorious career, and finally the troubles in the Netherlands, fomented by England, Prussia, and Holland, who had leagued together, for the purpose of preventing the dismemberment of Turkey, induced the emperor to forego his designs on that empire.

10. The reforms introduced by Joseph, into the Austrian Netherlands, were ill conceived and badly managed. His attempt to suddenly reduce under one system of ad-

ministration, provinces long separately governed by distinct laws and customs, and also in the enjoyment of important privileges, mostly secured by charter, were received by all classes with disgust and opposition ; riots and tumults ensued, the clergy, governors-general, and even the imperial minister, prince Kaunitz, sided with the people, who applied to the revolutionary party in France, for aid.

11. After much threatening, Joseph offered to relinquish the obnoxious parts of his new system, confirm the celebrated charter called "*La Joyeuse Entree*," and have the case referred to delegates on both sides ; this compromise was but of short duration, the incredulity and duplicity of the emperor became every day more apparent ; the whole population thus goaded to extremities, became divided like that of France, into two factions, the patriots, and the royalists ; the former by far the most powerful party, triumphantly carried all their measures. In November 1789, the States declared their independence, under the title of the United Belgic States.

12. Thus were the low countries sacrificed to the emperor's crude measures of reform : he lived to see his offers of peace and reconciliation rejected with disdain, while all his endeavours to reduce his revolted subjects to obedience by means of foreign aid, signally failed. Joseph II. died February 20th, 1790, in the 49th year of his age ; his end was hastened by the misfortunes that attended almost the whole of his political career.

13. At the time of his death, the greatest excitement prevailed throughout his dominions ; the Hungarians in particular, were almost driven to desperation by the ingratitude of the emperor, who, unmindful of their former attachment to his mother, had subjected them to most oppressive taxes and commercial restraints, and by interfering with their laws and customs offended some of their fondest prejudices.

14. Joseph II. was succeeded by his brother Leopold II. whose reign was both short and unhappy. Immediately on his accession, he appeased the spirit of discontent, by wisely revoking many of the late emperor's obnoxious innovations.

15. The situation of Leopold became very embarrassed, as the French revolution advanced. In order to rescue his

sister the queen of France from the revolutionists, who kept her a close prisoner and in continual danger of an untimely end, he leagued with Frederick of Prussia against France. While preparing for the war, he died after three days illness, in March, 1792, aged 44 and was succeeded by his eldest son, Francis, who became emperor in the following July.

16. Francis II. carried on those hostilities his father had projected against the French revolutionists. But he soon found himself in a very awkward situation. Instead of the Austrian forces invading France, the French forces under general Dumouriez were successfully invading Austria.

17. In 1792, the French arms were eminently successful in the Austrian Netherlands, and Germany. In the following year the combined Austrian and British forces captured the towns of Valenciennes and Conde. During the four succeeding years, victory again favoured the French who possessed themselves of the whole of the Austrian Netherlands, all the emperor's territory west of the Rhine, and the Austrian possessions in Italy. The progress of the French arms was only arrested by the treaty of Campo Formio. (October 1797).

18. In 1799, at the instigation of the Neapolitan court, the war was renewed: the Austrians, joined by the Russians, penetrated into Italy, and deprived the French of the greater part of their conquests, when a misunderstanding arose between the allies, and in September the Russians withdrew. In the following year, Buonaparte who had been in Egypt, crossed the Alps, gained the battle of Marengo (June 14th) and drove the Germans out of Italy.

XII.—*Spain from 1700 to 1843.*

1. Charles the second of Spain having died in 1700 without issue, the succession to the crown was contested between Philip, duke of Anjou and the archduke Charles of Austria. The claims of Philip were supported by a majority of the Spaniards, and he was at once proclaimed king of the Spanish dominions as Philip V. A long war ensued, (Austria being supported by the maritime powers, and Spain by France,) which was terminated by the treaty of Utrecht, 1713. By this treaty the crown of Spain was

confirmed to Philip, but stripped of its valuable European appendages.

2. About this period the Spanish premier, Cardinal-Alberoni, formed such bold and extensive designs that for a short time they seemed likely to effect great changes in the political system of Europe; the superior prowess of England and France, however, soon brought about the quadruple alliance (1720), followed by Alberoni's downfall.

3. In 1724 Philip resigned his crown to his son Louis, who died a few months after of the small pox, when Philip again resumed the government. On the breaking out of the Polish succession war (1733), hostilities were again renewed with Austria, when Philip succeeded in placing his son Don Carlos on the throne of the two Sicilies (1735), (part 3, sec. 1, § 13.) In 1739 the disputes as to the American trade induced a war with England, and in the following year Spain joined the enemies of Maria Theresa of Austria, but neither contest was conducted with spirit.

4. Philip died in 1746, and was succeeded by Ferdinand VI., whose reign happily exhibits no great events, he having observed a strict neutral policy in regard to the affairs of Europe, and devoted his sole attention to the improvement of the moral, social, and political institutions of his country. At the death of Ferdinand in 1759, his brother Don Carlos, king of Naples, ascended the throne by the title of Charles III. In 1761 Spain concluded a treaty with France, known as the family compact, which at once plunged her in the celebrated seven years' war, (part 3, sec. 1, § 13.) After the conclusion of peace in 1763, Charles much improved the interior of his country; he died in 1788, sincerely regretted by his subjects.

5. Charles IV. commenced his reign at the period of the French revolution; the conduct of his minister, Godoy, induced the French convention to declare war in 1793. In the following year Spain was compelled to submit to an ignominious peace: Godoy now concluded an offensive and defensive alliance with the revolutionary powers, which led to an immediate rupture with England, and produced fatal consequences to Spain—her fleet being beaten by the English off the Cape of St. Vincent, Trinidad taken from her and retained by England at the peace of Amiens, and her colonial and foreign trade nearly destroyed.

6. After the renewal of the war in 1803, Spain sought by a subsidy to France to be permitted to be neuter ; she was, however, not long allowed to be at peace ; in 1804 the English suddenly seized some of her treasure-ships coming from America, and in 1805 war was declared against Great Britain. At the commencement of this disastrous contest her fleet was so totally beaten by lord Nelson, off Cape Trafalgar, that she has never since recovered her former maritime strength.

7. In October, 1807, a secret treaty for the partition of Portugal was concluded between France and Spain at Fontainebleau. The affairs of the royal family were at this period wretchedly embroiled ; the hereditary prince, Ferdinand, had refused to marry a relation of Godoy's, which so exasperated the favourite minister, as to induce him to persuade the king to write to Bonaparte, stating that his son Ferdinand had endeavoured to dethrone him, and as such, ought to be excluded from the succession, but the junta convened for his trial, unanimously acquitted him.

8. Meanwhile France, under the pretext of marching her armies through Spain for the subjugation of Portugal, garrisoned several of the principal Spanish fortresses with French troops. The king received them as allies, which so exasperated the people, that they vehemently demanded the instant dismissal of Godoy. Violent tumults ensued ; the king became alarmed, and, publicly resigned his crown in favour of his son Ferdinand, March 1808. Ferdinand made known to Bonaparte, his assumption of the royal power, while Charles who regretted his abdication, informed the emperor of his desire to again assume the crown. Under these circumstances Bonaparte prevailed on the whole royal family to repair to Bayonne, (18th April,) to confer on the state of affairs. On their arrival Bonaparte threw off all disguise, treated them as prisoners, and compelled them to submit to a formal cession of the Spanish crown.

9. In the following June, Bonaparte transferred the crown to his brother Joseph, which so exasperated the people that a general rising took place throughout the country. Juntas were established in every part of the kingdom, to act against the French, and in all of them Ferdinand VII. was proclaimed king. The usurper entered Spain on the 9th of July, escorted by 4,000 Italian

troops, and followed by upwards of one hundred carriages ; but the people, though undisciplined and rudely armed, performed such prodigies of valour, as to compel him to fly from Madrid, directly after he had entered it. He however managed to plunder the treasury, and secure the crown jewels. The people, aided by England, continued the contest with various success till 1813, when the combined British, Spanish, and Portuguese army, under Wellington, gained the battle of Vittoria, which finally freed the Peninsula from its invaders.

10. In the same year Napoleon released Ferdinand VII., whose return to Spain disappointed the expectations of most of his subjects, particularly the members of the regency, and existing cortes, who having formed a liberal constitution for the country, and abolished the inquisition, were now compelled to submit to the dictum of the restored monarch, who not only refused to sanction the new order of things, but also restored the inquisition, abolished the liberty of the press, and endeavoured to restore the ancient system in its worst form ; disaffection ensued in the army, and at length by a revolution in March 1820, the king was compelled to accept the constitution of 1812, and summon the cortes.

11. The clergy and nobles now fomented dissension, and ultra-liberal parties were formed throughout the country. Violent commotions ensued, the sword, the scaffold, the dungeon, and exile, were speedily brought into powerful operation. In June 1823, the cortes requested the king to remove from Seville to Cadiz, which he refused, unless compelled by force. They then appointed a regency, alleging that the moral incapacity on the part of the king, provided for by the constitution, had occurred. On the 12th of June, the cortes, the king, and the regency, departed for Cadiz, whereupon the authorities called in the aid of the French, who took possession of Cadiz, on the 4th of October, two days after the cortes had given the king his liberty.

12. Immediately Ferdinand was reinvested with absolute power, he declared all the acts of the constitutional government, from the 7th of March, 1820, to the 1st of October, 1823, void, and the former partizans of the constitution were rigorously prosecuted. In 1825, the Carlists who wished to dethrone Ferdinand, and invest the regal power in his brother Don Carlos, created great

disturbances throughout the country. In this state the country remained for several years. In 1830, Maria Christina, the king's fourth wife, gave birth to a royal princess, whereupon a royal decree rendered the crown (in default of male issue) hereditary in the female line. In 1832, Ferdinand experienced an attack of severe illness, at which period the friends of Don Carlos, prevailed on him to render the crown of Spain hereditary in the male line only. On his recovery he renounced this decree, and declared his daughter to be his only legitimate successor. Don Carlos was shortly afterwards banished.

13. On the 29th of September, 1833, Ferdinand died suddenly of apoplexy. He willed the crown to his infant daughter, Isabella, and appointed the queen regent during her minority. Don Carlos however claimed the throne, and a civil war ensued. The liberals supported Isabella II. The absolutists Don Carlos. In the spring of 1834, England and France agreed to assist in the expulsion of Don Carlos; though the British government agreed to assist with a naval force only, auxiliary troops, denominated "the British Legion," were raised in both England and Ireland, and under the command of general Evans, they played a conspicuous part in the Carlist and Christina warfare.

14. In 1836, a revolution drove the premier into exile, and compelled the queen regent to promise her acceptance of the constitution of 1812. A new liberal ministry was formed, and the new constitution, after having been revised by the cortes, proclaimed on the 16th of June, 1837. The war was still vigorously prosecuted by both parties, victory favouring first one, then the other, till at length in 1840, the Carlists were driven from their stronghold, Morella.

15. At this period a military despotism, headed by Espartero, reigned supreme. The queen regent being stripped of all power, now abdicated, and retired first to Naples, and afterwards to France. In May 1841, Espartero was elected sole regent of Spain during the minority of Isabella, and he succeeded in effecting many useful reforms in the state. He however gave such offence to the clergy by appropriating part of their revenues to secular purposes, that in 1843, he was compelled to quit Spain, and seek refuge in England.

16. A new ministry was now formed, who deemed it advisable to declare the queen Isabella of age. The duke of Baylon was nominated her guardian. The affairs of Spain still remain very unsettled: commerce has been almost entirely expelled from her shores by the horrors of civil war.

XII.—*Portugal from 1700 to 1836.*

1. At the commencement of the eighteenth century, the affairs of Portugal wore an improving aspect. In 1703, a treaty was concluded by the English ambassador, which secured great advantages to both countries. During the long reign of John V. which continued from 1707 to 1750, the general internal and external affairs of Portugal were rather improved than otherwise. The power of the inquisition was restricted, and the academy of Portuguese history founded. John V. was succeeded by his son Joseph I. The enterprising reformer Don Carvalho, afterwards marquis of Pombal, administered the government much to the satisfaction of the nation at large. He boldly attacked the jesuits and the nobility. In 1759 the former were banished the country, and their property confiscated. A dreadful earthquake occurred at Lisbon in November, 1755, which laid the city in ruins, and killed 15,000 persons.

2. On the accession of Maria Francisca Isabella, eldest daughter of Joseph, the Pombal ministry terminated, and the ignorant and ambitious clergy and nobles speedily regained much of their former influence. In 1792, on account of the indisposition of the queen, her eldest son Joseph, prince of Brazil, was declared regent. Seven years after, the malady having terminated in confirmed insanity, Joseph was declared regent, with full regal powers. His adhering to the English alliance, involved him in war with France, but circumstances induced him to make peace with that country in 1797. Two years afterwards he again renewed hostilities in alliance with England and Russia.

3. The treaty of Amiens (1802) allowed Portugal to again enjoy the blessings of peace. On the breaking out of hostilities in the following year, Bonaparte made demands on the regent, with which he could not in honour comply. A French army under Junot, entered

the country, and the dynasty of Braganza was declared by Bonaparte at an end. In these extremities the royal family, instigated by the English, embarked for America, on the 9th of November, 1807. On the following day, Junot entered the capital, and Portugal was treated as a conquered country.

4. The people in the northern provinces now armed in defence of national independence. An English force was speedily sent to their aid, and a junta established at Oporto, to conduct the government. Some hard fighting ensued, followed by the decisive battle of Vimiera, (August 21st, 1808) which led to the convention of Cintra, and the evacuation of the country by the invaders.

5. On the death of Maria, in 1810, the regent succeeded to the crown of Portugal, but he still remained at Brazil. No very essential change took place in Portugal till the year 1820, when a revolution unattended with extreme violence or bloodshed was effected. Early in the following year, the king returned to Portugal, but was not permitted to land, till he had confirmed the constitution demanded by the people, which he did with apparent willingness, and he afterwards concurred in all the succeeding acts of the cortes.

6. At this period the Brazilians revolted against the mother country, and requested, or rather compelled the heir apparent to assume the crown of Brazil, and in November, 1825, a treaty was ratified at Lisbon, recognizing the separation and independence of Brazil, and acknowledging Don Pedro as sovereign of the country.

7. In 1823, a battalion of royalists headed by the infant Don Miguel, declared against the constitution, but order was speedily restored. Don Miguel however still continued to kindle disaffection. In 1824, partial revolution was effected, and the king compelled to seek refuge in an English war ship, in which, with some difficulty, he at length succeeded in re-establishing his authority. On his return to shore he issued a decree for restoring the ancient constitution, and summoning the old cortes. The nation opposed the election, and thus the flame of discord was again re-kindled.

8. John VI. died on the 10th of March, 1826, after having named the infanta Isabella, regent, to govern in

the name of the emperor of Brazil. In April, Don Pedro granted a new constitution, founded on liberal principles. In the following month, he abdicated the crown of Portugal in favour of his daughter Donna Maria, on condition of her marrying her uncle Don Miguel. Though Don Miguel pledged his readiness to comply with these conditions, he speedily broke through them, and permitted himself to be proclaimed absolute king. Portugal now became the scene of civil war; England was appealed to, and large bodies of volunteers embarked from Britain and Ireland in the cause of the infant queen. Don Pedro at length arrived in Europe, and aided by the British and French, compelled Don Miguel to quit the kingdom, on condition of receiving a life annuity suited to his rank.

9. Donna Maria was now proclaimed queen of Portugal, and her father appointed regent, but ill health induced him shortly afterwards to resign that office, when the cortes declared the queen of age, and she assumed full regal powers. She accepted the constitution of 1820, which was proclaimed at Lisbon on the 9th of September, 1836.

XIII.—*France from the establishment of the Consulate, 1799, to the termination of the empire, 1814.*

1. The revolution effected by Bonaparte in the French government was hailed by the nation at large with universal satisfaction; in fact, the violence of the jacobins had brought republicanism into such disrepute that a strong executive government seemed necessary to restore things to anything like order. The new constitution was solemnly proclaimed on the 24th of December, 1799, and consisted of an executive composed of three consuls, one bearing the title of chief, and in fact possessing almost the sole authority, legislative and executive. A senate of 80, a tribune of 100, and a legislative body of 300 members: Bonaparte was nominated first consul, Cambacères the second, and Le Brun the third.

2 The first consul now made overtures of peace to England and Austria, which being rejected, and a large subsidy granted by England to enable Austria to continue the war, the French lost no time in endeavouring to recover their footing in Italy. Bonaparte took the command of the army in those parts, crossed the great St. Bernard from

Switzerland, which was before considered inaccessible to a regularly equipped army, captured the town of Costa with the celebrated fort of Bard, entered Milan without opposition, and gained a decisive victory over the Austrians on the plains of Marengo, on the 14th of June, 1800, which was followed by a suspension of hostilities solicited by the Austrian general, who withdrew his troops to the line of Mantua and the Mincio, while the French retained the greater part of Lombardy. Negotiations for peace were shortly afterwards entered into at Paris, whither the victor had returned; but in consequence of the non-adherence of England, they were broken off, and the war continued both in Italy and Germany.

3. On the 3rd of December, Moreau, who commanded the army of the Rhine, defeated the Austrians under the archduke John, at Hohenlinden, when another suspension of hostilities was agreed to, which was followed by the treaty of Luneville, signed on the 9th of November, 1801, between the French republic and the emperor of Austria, in his own name and that of the German empire, but without the concurrence of England. By this treaty the Rhine was declared the boundary between France and Germany, and those German princes who lost their territories beyond the Rhine were to be indemnified by additional possessions on the right bank of that river. The German empire also recognised the independence of the Batavian, Swiss, Cisalpine, and Ligurian republics.

4. The British having captured Malta, and driven the French out of Egypt, were now desirous for peace, which equally according with the views of Napoleon, preliminaries were speedily arranged, and a definitive treaty signed at Amiens on the 27th of March, 1802.

5. The first acts of the consul were of a conciliatory nature; the law of hostage was repealed, the prescription of emigrants put an end to in April, 1801, and a general amnesty, with some exceptions, granted to all who chose to return to France and swear fidelity to the existing government. In March, 1802, Napoleon concluded a concordat with the Pope, for the re-establishment of the Romish religion, a new division of the French dioceses was made, suited to the republican division of the country, and the bishops, who took the oath of fidelity to the republic, were nominated by the first consul.

6. On the 19th of May the legion of honour was

founded; and on the 2nd of August, Bonaparte was chosen first consul for life, followed by a new constitution, which permitted him to nominate his colleagues, make war, form alliances, conclude peace, pardon criminals, and virtually to choose the members of the legislative body by means of the senate, which was almost entirely under his control. The Cisalpine and Ligurian republics, and other newly-acquired states, were placed upon a similar footing—the supreme power in all cases being reserved to Bonaparte as chief magistrate. At this period the Cisalpine was converted into the Italian republic, and Switzerland declared to be an independent state: the cantons were, however, required to maintain a body of 16,000 men in the service of France.

7. The peace of Amiens was soon found to be little better than a truce of very short duration. In September, 1802, Piedmont was seized and incorporated with France, and in the following month Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, were similarly appropriated, while the English retained Malta, though they had agreed to restore it to the knights of St. John. In May, 1803, hostilities were commenced by the British government issuing an order granting reprisals against the ships, goods, and subjects of France, and an embargo on all French vessels in their ports. In retaliation for this Bonaparte ordered that all natives of Britain, from the age of 18 to 60, then in France or Holland, should be made prisoners of war; at the same time the electorate of Hanover was captured by the French troops, under General Moreau, while an immense number of troops were collected at Boulogne for the invasion of England. Napoleon, however, found it convenient to defer this enterprise.

8. In February 1804, a plot was discovered at Paris for the assassination of Napoleon and the overthrow of the government. The principal conspirators were generals Pichegru and Moreau, and Georges Cadoudal. Under a pretence that the young duke of Enghien was concerned in this plot, Napoleon had him arrested, brought to the castle of Vincennes, and, after a mock trial, conveyed to the neighbouring woods and shot by torch-light on the 21st of March. General Pichegru was found dead in prison, Moreau was permitted to retire to America, and Georges was executed.

9. On the 18th of May, by an organic *senatus consultum*, Bonaparte was declared emperor of the French, with hereditary succession in his family; he was crowned on the 2nd of December, in the church of Notre Dame, by the Pope, who had been requested or rather compelled to visit Paris for that purpose. He next found means to induce the constituted authorities of the new Italian republic to offer him the iron crown of Italy, which he immediately accepted, and on the 26th of May, 1805, was crowned at Milan king of Italy with great pomp. The Ligurian republic was added to his empire in the following June.

10. These proceedings at length induced Russia and Austria to unite with England for the purpose of resisting his encroachments. By sea the combined French and Spanish fleets were almost annihilated by the British under Lord Nelson, off Cape Trafalgar, on the 21st of October. In Germany, the Austrian army suffered severe losses. At the head of 140,000 soldiers Napoleon crossed the Rhine, and was speedily joined by the duke of Wurtemberg and the elector of Bavaria, whom he rewarded by erecting their territories into kingdoms. On the 6th of October the Austrians were defeated at Wettingen, on the 14th Mciningen capitulated, and on the 17th general Mack, who had allowed himself to be surrounded at Ulm, surrendered his whole force of 30,000 men: the other scattered Austrian forces being unable to offer any effectual resistance, Bonaparte entered Vienna on the 14th of November; and on the 2nd of December the combined Austrians and Prussians were routed in the great battle of Austerlitz, which decided the war, though it had lasted but two months. An interview between Napoleon and Francis II. followed, and the victor dictated his own terms. By the treaty of Presburg, signed on the 26th of December, Austria ceded Venice to France, the Tyrol to Bavaria, Briesgau to Baden, and other Suabian possessions to Wurtemberg. She also recognised Bonaparte as emperor of France and king of Italy, the electors of Bavaria and Wurtemberg as kings, and the elector of Baden as sovereign elector. The emperor of Russia withdrew his troops into his own dominions, and France ceded Hanover to the king of Prussia, as a reward for his neutrality.

11. The king of Naples having committed a breach of neutrality by permitting an English and Russian force to

land on his dominions, Napoleon immediately declared that the dynasty of Naples had ceased to reign; the country was speedily reduced by the French troops, under Massena, and on the 30th of March, 1806, Joseph Bonaparte was proclaimed king; immediately afterwards Louis Bonaparte was elected king of Holland, through the influence of his brother Napoleon, who now erected various districts in Italy and Germany into dukedoms, and bestowed them on his relatives and principal marshals.

12. In July most of the princes of the south and west of Germany were induced to form what is called the confederation of the Rhine, by which they consented to renounce the laws of the empire and contract a federative alliance with Napoleon. In consequence of this gross defection of so many of its members, Francis I., by an official document, resigned the office of emperor of Germany and assumed the title of emperor of Austria and king of Hungary and Bohemia.

13. Prussia, alarmed at the continued encroachments of France, now leagued with Russia against her; Bonaparte instantly transported his immense army across the continent, gained the memorable battles of Jena and Auerstadt, and on the 27th of October entered Berlin in triumph. Here, on the 20th of November, he issued the celebrated Berlin decree, by which the British isles were declared in a state of blockade, and all commerce and correspondence between the British dominions and the countries under his control strictly prohibited; he next marched into Poland against the Russians. Many severe but undecisive battles were fought between the months of February and June, 1807, when the Russians were totally routed at Friedland, and the victor entered Tilsit, where an armistice was concluded, followed by a treaty of peace, signed July 7. Russia agreed to acknowledge the confederation of the Rhine, to assist Napoleon in his designs against British commerce, and aid and support his general system of aggrandizement. Prussia was compelled to resign about half her territories: one part of which the French emperor conferred on his brother Jerome, with the title of king of Westphalia; the rest he gave to the elector (now king) of Saxony. Prussia also agreed to recognise Joseph Bonaparte as king of Naples, Louis Bonaparte as king of Holland, and Jerome Bonaparte as king of Westphalia, as also the formation of this kingdom from the ceded Prus-

sian and other countries; likewise, that Prussia should close her harbours and countries against British navigation and trade.

14. The king of Sweden refused to become a party to this convention, but he had not the means to contend against so powerful an adversary as Bonaparte. After attempting in vain to secure Stralsund, he was compelled to retire with the loss of both Stralsund and the Isle of Rugen.

15. Napoleon next projected plans against Portugal, in order to prepare the way for more important designs against Spain. Three months after the signing of the peace of Tilsit, he concluded the famous treaty with Spain for the partition of Portugal. Spain was assured of its share of the spoil, while a French Spanish army marched against Lisbon. The regent of Portugal, finding resistance to be vain, emigrated to Brazil under convoy of a British squadron.

16. In March, 1808, a decree was passed in France for the renewal of titles of honour, and creating a new order of hereditary nobility, as essential to an hereditary monarchy. At this period the king of Spain was compelled to resign his crown to Napoleon, who immediately removed his brother Joseph Bonaparte from Naples, and caused him to be crowned king of Spain. The crown of Naples was transferred to Joachim Murat, brother-in-law to Napoleon. The people of Spain would not submit to the dictum of the French emperor; as soon as they recovered from their consternation, they rose *en masse* to vindicate their rights; Portugal followed their example. Long and arduous military operations ensued, which devoured alike the French armies and the French finances, gave England a theatre for war, and taught Europe that the people are more powerful than mercenary armies: in fact, the persevering resistance of the Spaniards may be regarded as the commencement of that popular awakening which eventually overthrew the dynasty of Bonaparte.

17. In April, 1809, war was renewed with Austria. Napoleon immediately took the field, and so rapid was his progress, that after repulsing the Austrians at Augsburg, Eckmühl and Ratisbon, he entered Vienna in triumph on the 12th of May. The archduke Charles now boldly resolved to again give the French battle; he accordingly collected his army on the left bank of the Danube; Napo-

leon crossed over to attack him. The desperately contested battle of Aspern ensued; victory favoured the Austrians, but they allowed the French emperor time to collect his forces and repair his losses, when he again gave them battle on the 6th of July, and gained the decisive victory of Wagram. The loss of the Austrians was so great in this desperate conflict, that Francis II. was compelled to conclude an extremely humiliating peace at Vienna on the 14th of October. Saltzburgh was ceded to Bavaria, West Gallicia to Saxony, East Gallicia to Russia, and the Illyrian provinces to France. Austria also promised to accede to the continental system, and to break off all its relations with England.

18. To add to his elevation, Napoleon now obtained in marriage the archduchess Maria Louisa of Austria, daughter of the emperor Francis, the empress Josephine having by her own consent been previously divorced. The marriage took place at Paris on the 2nd of April, 1810. In the following year the new empress gave birth to a son, who was immediately declared king of Rome.

19. The brave Tyrolese seized the opportunity of the Austrian war to revolt. They were at first successful, and expelled the Bavarians from their principal towns; but after the battle of Wagram, the French and Bavarian forces penetrated their mountain fastnesses, and laid the country waste with fire and sword. The patriot Hoffer was taken and shot, and the land again subject to the yoke of France.

20. On the 7th of May, 1809, Napoleon issued a decree, commanding that the temporalities of the pope should be incorporated with France; for which Pius VI. excommunicated him; he in return had the pope arrested on the night of July 5th, and conveyed prisoner to Savona, where he received only the daily prison allowance and lived in part on alms. In 1812 he was conveyed to Fontainebleau.

21. In 1809 Napoleon revived the grand duchy of Tuscany, which he conferred on his sister, Eliza, Princess of Lucca and Piombino. He gave the grand duchy of Berg, vacated by the removal of Murat to the throne of Naples, to Louis son of the king of Holland, while Bernadotte one of his generals was elected to the throne of Sweden. In 1810, the king of Holland, having connived at a clandestine intercourse with England, was

dethroned, and the whole of the Dutch territories united to France by a decree of Bonaparte.

22. In December 1810, the financial concerns of Russia being much embarrassed by a rigid observance of Napoleon's darling "continental system," the emperor Alexander renewed his intercourse with England, and commenced preparations for war. In June 1812, Napoleon declared war against Russia. With an immense host, numbering nearly half a million combatants, he crossed the Niemen on the 24th of June, the Russians gradually retiring at his approach, and wasting the country in their retreat. On the 16th of August, a tremendous battle was fought under the walls of Smolensko; victory favoured the invaders, the Russian general evacuated the city, and continued his retreat upon Moscow. Kutusoff, who now commanded the Russian forces, determined not to abandon Moscow without another effort. On the 7th of September a desperate battle was fought at Borodino, a village near the banks of the river Moskva; nearly 70,000 men perished in this sanguinary conflict; both parties claimed the victory. But Napoleon being reinforced he was enabled to enter Moscow on the 14th of September. Here, however, was the limit of his advances, the tomb of his greatness. Here he had hoped to find refreshment and repose for his debilitated army; but they had scarcely entered the solitary capital, when the flames burst forth in a hundred places. The city had been fired by order of the governor, and by the hands of the enraged inhabitants. All endeavours to check the devouring element, were vain, the houses being chiefly built of wood. In the space of three days nearly the whole city was reduced to a mass of burning embers.

23. The position of Napoleon's army was now truly deplorable. With nothing but ruins to protect them from the already intense cold, and all the horrors of Siberian winter before them; while being destitute of supplies, they were compelled to live on their horses. Under these distressing circumstances, Napoleon proposed a truce which was promptly refused; the Russians declaring that no terms could be entered into, while an enemy remained on their soil. Thus no alternative but a retreat remained. The main body left the ruins of Moscow on the 19th of October, closely pursued by the army of Kutusoff and numberless swarms of Cossacks, while single corps

d'armée were stationed at various posts so as to harass and as much as possible retard their progress. The snows of winter began to fall on the 6th of November, when the cold became alike unendurable to both man and beast, and killed them by thousands. From this period the retreat presents one unbroken chain of unparalleled horrors; they were obliged to abandon their artillery for the want of cattle, and whole corps exhausted by fatigue, cold and hunger, surrendered without resistance to their pursuers. On the 4th of December, Napoleon leaving his miserable army in charge of Murat, fled from Smorgong in a sledge, and, traversing Poland and Germany, made the best of his way to Paris, where he arrived at midnight on the 18th of December. The news of these awful reverses which completely electrified the French nation had but shortly before preceded him.

24. Of the immense army that invaded Russia, only 30,000 returned to France, 125,000 perished in battle, 132,000 died of cold, hunger, and fatigue, and 193,000 were taken prisoners. Napoleon speedily raised a fresh army amounting to 350,000 men, and hastened to the north. But he now evidently laboured under many disadvantages; he had not only Russia, but also Prussia and Sweden as enemies, besides his young army but ill supplied the place of the veterans lost in Russia. The war of liberation was begun in Germany. On the 2nd of May, 1813, the battle of Lutzen was fought, and on the 21st and 22nd, that of Bautzen. Both these engagements were undecisive, but the loss on both sides was so great as to induce each to desire an armistice, which, through the mediation of Austria was agreed to on the 4th of June, and a congress met at Prague for the purpose of considering terms of peace. The French emperor would not consent that his power should be limited in the smallest degree. The armistice expired on the 10th of August; two days afterwards Austria joined the allies, and all parties prepared for the renewal of the contest with great vigour.

25. After several desultory engagements fought in the vicinity of Dresden and in Bohemia, with doubtful successes, Napoleon collected his forces at Leipsic, where he determined to make a final stand. Here the celebrated succession of engagements, which has not inaptly been named the "Battle of Nations," took place on the 16th,

18th and 19th of October. The French were totally defeated, and Leipsic taken only two hours after Napoleon had effected his escape. Just before the battle of Leipsic the kings of Bavaria and Wurtemberg, and the grand duke of Baden deserted the French cause and joined the allies. During the battle the reserve army deserted to the crown prince of Sweden, and were by their own desire directly led against the French. Bonaparte re-entered France on the 7th of November, after fighting his way through the troops of Bavaria, with a remnant of only 70,000 men.

26. The war in Germany now became a popular war. Both the princes and the people rose *en masse* and threw off the chains of the confederation of the Rhine; the kingdom of Westphalia, and the Grand Duchies of Berg and Frankfort were speedily dissolved: the dukes of Brunswick and Hesse Cassel recovered their dominions, while Holland threw off the yoke, and re-called the prince of Orange.

27. In December, the allied armies, amounting to nearly 400,000 strong, crossed the Rhine at different points, while the English under Wellington were near Bayonne. On the 24th of January, 1814, the allies defeated Marshal Mortier, at Fontain on Aube, the same being the first action within the French territory. Several sanguinary contests ensued, in which the French were generally repulsed, and the allies advanced nearer to Paris.

28. On the 4th of January negotiations for a general peace were commenced at Chatillon; but as Napoleon would not listen to the proposal to fix the limits of France as they were in 1792, hostilities were speedily resumed. While these negotiations were pending, a quadruple alliance for twenty years, was signed between England, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, each of the powers agreed to furnish 150,000 men for continuing the war, and England promised subsidies to the extent of £5,000,000. The war was now prosecuted with great vigour, the French emperor, with a force greatly inferior in number, kept at bay the various hostile armies during the space of two months; but the odds were too great against him. While by a dexterous manœuvre, he threw himself in their rear, the allies at once marched to Paris; but a battle under its walls was necessary, and for

the first time its inhabitants heard the thunder of hostile artillery. It capitulated on the 31st of March. On the 2nd of April, Napoleon was formally deposed by the senate; on the 11th, he resigned the crown of France on condition that he should retire to Elba (a residence of his own choice) retain his imperial titles, and have that island and its dependencies assigned to him as sovereign, with a revenue of 2,000,000 francs; Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, were at the same time secured to the empress Maria Louisa, and her descendants; nor were his other relations left unprovided for. He set out for his new dominions on the 20th.

XV.—*England from the treaty of Amiens 1802 to the death of George III. 1820.*

1. The treaty of Amiens was soon found to be little better than a hollow truce. Napoleon who now as first consul swayed the destinies of France, entertained great animosity against England, and took every means in his power to re-kindle war, while the English government exhibited a spirit of hasty retaliation, combined with harshness of conduct, by no means creditable, and scarcely in accordance with the strict rules of international law. In May, 1803, the British government commenced hostilities by laying an embargo on the French shipping in their ports, while a naval force was employed to occupy such of the West Indian islands as still belonged to the enemy. In retaliation, the first consul issued a decree for the detention of all the English then in France and Holland as prisoners of war. About 12,000 English subjects were thus suddenly deprived of their liberty, nor, with very few exceptions, were any of them able to regain it for nearly eleven years.

2. In June, 1803, the French made themselves masters of Hanover, and excluded British commerce from Hamburg, while an immense flotilla was collected at Boulogne for the invasion of England, which gave such a vigorous impetus to British patriotism, as to materially strengthen the hands of the government. In 1804, Mr. Pitt was again placed at the head of affairs, and in the following year a new coalition of Russia, Sweden, Austria and Naples was organised to oppose the ambition of Napoleon, who not content with being almost absolute master

of the continent of Europe, now made exertions to obtain the empire of the sea. The decisive victory obtained by the British squadron under Nelson, over the combined French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar, completely frustrated the schemes of the French ruler, and highly advanced the naval power and credit of Great Britain. This glorious victory was purchased with the life of England's greatest naval commander. Nelson fell early in the action, his body was brought to England, and buried with great pomp in the centre of St. Paul's Cathedral.

3. On the continent of Europe all the exertions of the allies to check the career of Napoleon proved futile. The great victory of Austerlitz, again prostrated the power of Austria, and enabled him to dictate a peace very humiliating to the Austrian emperor. This event proved a death blow to Mr. Pitt, who expired on the 23rd of January, 1806, in the forty-seventh year of his age. His remains were interred in Westminster Abbey, and a monument erected to him at the public expense.

4. A new ministry was now formed under Mr. Fox, who lived to retain office but seven months. His remains were interred in Westminster Abbey, within a few inches of those of his great rival, Mr. Pitt. During the short existence of the Fox administration, fresh attempts were made to terminate the war by negotiation, but the determination of the French ruler to retain some of the most important parts of Europe rendered accommodation impossible.

5. In March, 1807, a total change of the ministry took place. Mr. Perceval was the recognized leader. The new cabinet, suspecting that Napoleon designed to occupy Holstein, and convert to the purposes of an invasion of the British dominions, the Danish marine, despatched an armament to Copenhagen, to seize and carry off all the Danish ships of war. The object of the expedition was accomplished, but with the sacrifice of 2,000 lives, and the almost total destruction of the Danish capital. This sudden and unexpected attack on a brave people, not at war with England, will ever be viewed as an act of unwarrantable tyranny and oppression. The emperor of Russia having made peace with France, seized this opportunity to commence hostilities against Great Britain. On the 31st of October,

he recalled his ambassador, and proclaimed anew the principles of the armed neutrality.

6. At this period the royal family of France took refuge in England. The rigid measures adopted by Bonaparte to ruin the commerce of Great Britain, naturally drew from the latter retaliatory expedients. These embarrassments to trade excited great uneasiness in all parts of the world, and involved England in a very unpleasant dispute with the United States of America.

7. Down to this period the contest had been one more of the governments, than of the people. But now the latter began also to view Napoleon as their common enemy. The Spaniards and Portuguese were the first to exhibit this spirit of patriotism. They applied to England for assistance, and both the government and people of Great Britain and Ireland espoused their cause with much enthusiasm. Subscriptions were opened in all the leading cities of the British empire. Several military corps volunteered their services, and government supplied them immediately with 300,000 pounds in dollars, 5,000 muskets, 30,000 pikes, and an abundance of powder, ball, and other necessary stores; and promised more effectual aid hereafter, which promise was strictly fulfilled. An army of about 10,000 men, commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley, landed at Corunna, on the 20th of July, 1808, and defeated the French under Junot, at Vimiera on the 21st of August. Immediately afterwards a convention was entered into at Cintra, between Sir H. Dalrymple, who had subsequently taken the command of the British forces, and the French general, Kellerman, for the speedy evacuation of Portugal, by the French troops.

8. The chief command of the British forces was now conferred on Sir John Moore, who immediately led them into Spain. He however being unable to keep the field in the presence of an enemy so much superior in numbers, retreated under very disadvantageous circumstances towards the port of Corunna, whither he was closely pursued by Marshal Soult. Here on the 16th of January, 1809, the celebrated battle of Corunna was fought, in which Sir John Moore was killed. The French were however repulsed, and the English embarked in safety. The French now made the most vigorous exer-

tions for the complete subjugation of Spain and Portugal. For a short period, success crowned their efforts.

9. In April, Sir Arthur Wellesley landed at Lisbon with a British armament, consisting of about 30,000 men, and speedily compelled the French to abandon Oporto, and on the 28th of July, he defeated a formidable army under Jourdan and Victor, at Talavera. But the enemy being speedily reinforced, he was obliged to fall back upon Portugal. For the great skill and bravery displayed in this action he was created a peer, with the title of Viscount Wellington.

10. About this time a powerful armament composed of nearly 40,000 men, under lord Chatham, was sent out to get possession of Flushing and the Island of Walcheren with the French fleet in the Scheldt, but the unhealthiness of the climate, combined with the want of skill and experience in the commander, brought about a most disgraceful and disastrous issue.

11. In 1810 the French army in Spain was largely reinforced, for the avowed purpose of driving the English out of the Peninsula. The British army, being greatly inferior in numbers to the French, Wellington entrenched his troops on the summit of the mountain of Buzaco. His opponent, suspecting he was actuated by fear, attacked him in his fastness, on the 27th of September; a desperate encounter ensued, which terminated in the defeat of the French: the victor, however, deemed it prudent to retire to an impregnable position on Torres Vedras, where he remained on the defensive.

12. Towards the close of the year the intellect of his majesty George III. completely gave way; the prince of Wales was in consequence appointed regent. Though great changes in administration had been contemplated, the same ministry, with few exceptions, was continued in office.

13. In May, 1812, Mr. Perceval the premier, was shot in the lobby of the House of Commons, by a lunatic of the name of Bellingham, and lords Liverpool and Castlereagh, were placed at the head of affairs. The differences between the English and American governments, now wore a serious aspect. All attempts to bring about a pacification having failed, the Americans declared war against Great Britain, and resolved upon the conquest of Canada; but the vigilance of the British

generals frustrated their designs, and compelled them to desist from the enterprise. They were, however, more successful at sea, and captured several English vessels. The contest was of little interest compared with that waged on the continent of Europe; it ended in 1814 without settling the more important points in dispute.

14. In the meantime the situation of Napoleon had become extremely critical, the invasion of Russia had annihilated his grand army, which all Europe hailed as a signal for their deliverance. Early in 1813 Alexander formed an alliance with Sweden and Prussia, and aided by several minor princes, commenced hostilities; a short truce was agreed upon, during which period, Austria joined the league in the Peninsula, Wellington had gained the memorable victory of Salamanca, and took possession of Madrid; though, through unavoidable circumstances, he was compelled to again retreat into Portugal. In May, 1813, he again took the field, and on the 21st of June completely defeated the French at the battle of Vittoria, and driving the fugitives across the Pyrenees, entered France on the 7th of October. During this time the allies, who had commenced operations with much vigour in the north of Germany, steadily advanced onwards by different routes, crossed the Rhine early in 1814, speedily approached Paris, gained a victory under its walls on the 30th of March, and on the following day entered the city in triumph. Shortly afterwards, Napoleon agreed to abdicate, and content himself with the sovereignty of the Island of Elba, when Louis XVIII., after an absence of twenty-three years, returned to assume the crown of France.

15. On the 30th of May, a definitive treaty of peace was signed at Paris between Great Britain and France, by which France was reduced nearly to the limits she had possessed in 1792, but received back all her colonial possessions, with the exception of the isle of Malta, the Mauritius, Tobago, and the Cape of Good Hope, which were ceded to Great Britain. It was agreed that all other matters should be settled by a congress of the leading powers to be held at Vienna at some future period. The emperor of Russia and the king of Prussia, shortly afterwards paid a congratulatory visit to the prince regent of England, and were received in London with great rejoicings.

16. The proceedings of the congress at Vienna were suddenly interrupted by the news that Bonaparte had landed in France, and was received by the soldiers with open arms. The congress instantly issued a manifesto of expulsion, and assembled large armies with all possible expedition. Napoleon opened the campaign, and gained some advantages over the Prussians, but in the ever-memorable battle of Waterloo, in which the British, under Wellington, played so distinguished a part, his army was irretrievably ruined, and Europe finally rescued from his iron grasp. After this memorable battle, fought on the 18th of June, 1815, the allies rapidly advanced towards Paris. Napoleon perceiving that his reign was at an end, made a fruitless abdication in favour of his son, and fled to the sea-shore in the hope of escaping to America: but finding it impossible to escape the vigilance of the British cruisers, he surrendered himself to captain Maitland of the *Bellerophon*. The allies shortly afterwards determined that he should be imprisoned for life, in the island of St. Helena, whither he was immediately sent, and where he expired on the 5th of May, 1821. His death was occasioned by a cancer in the stomach. Thus ended this sanguinary contest, in which every nation in Europe had been involved, and which caused an amount of bloodshed unparalleled in the annals of history. The shores of Great Britain were happily freed from the carnage; but she may be said to have gained little else besides glory, and an enormously augmented national debt, in return for the effectual aid she afforded to the continental powers. In May 1816, the princess Charlotte, only child of the regent, was married to his serene highness Leopold George Frederick of Saxe-Cobourg, upon which parliament voted her an annuity of £60,000. She died in child-bed, in November 1817; her death was sincerely deplored by the nation at large, and £50,000 per annum generously bestowed on her disconsolate consort for life. The years 1816-17-18-19 and 20, are remarkable for the immense number of public meetings convened, attended, and almost exclusively conducted by the working classes for the purpose of procuring a radical reform of the House of Commons on the basis of universal suffrage, annual parliaments, and vote by ballot. The expenses of the war had certainly pressed very heavily on the

industry of the country ; it was, therefore, only natural that when peace was established, they should expect the burdens of the nation, to be removed to the shoulders of the more wealthy members of the community. To meet this exigency, the regent surrendered £50,000 of his income, and soon afterwards the marquis of Camden relinquished the fees of the tellership of the exchequer, valued at £13,000 per annum, reserving only the salary of £2,700, but alas, no one imitated these laudable acts of generosity.

Queen Charlotte died at Kew, on the 17th November, 1818. The duke of Kent expired on the 23rd of Jan. 1820, and six days afterwards the nation had to deplore the loss of his majesty George III., who expired at Windsor without a struggle, in the 82nd year of his age.

XV.—*France from the termination of the Empire, 1814, to the present time.*

1. Immediately after the departure of Napoleon for Elba, Louis XVIII. was recalled by the French senate to the throne of his ancestors. He made his solemn entry into Paris on the 3rd of May, 1814, having previously consented in general terms to a new constitution, similar to that of Great Britain, drawn up by the senate. He next concluded a peace with the allies : but though matters were left to be finally adjusted by the congress at Vienna, France was given to understand that her continental dominions must be restricted to what they had been in 1792. England, however, liberally restored all her colonial conquests, except the island of Malta, the Mauritius, Tobago, St. Lucia, and the Cape of Good Hope.

2. On the 4th of June, Louis XVIII. presented to the legislature a new constitutional charter, which, though differing in some points from that presented to him by the senate, was accepted without opposition, and became the fundamental law of the realm. There was still, however, many prejudices in favour of Napoleon to overcome ; while both the army and the nation at large inferred from the boastings of the returned emigrants, that the court intended to revert to the despotic principles of the old monarchy. These and other similar circumstances created a general feeling throughout the country in favour of the return of the abdicated emperor, who, eagerly responding

to the call of the nation, left Elba with about eleven hundred men on the 25th of Feb. 1815, landed at the small town of Cannes, marched to Grenoble, and from thence to Paris. On his route the armies that had been sent to oppose him declared in his favour, which augmented his numbers so considerably as to render all resistance on the part of the king useless.

3. On the 20th of March the king left Paris, and on the evening of the same day, Napoleon entered it, and was received by the people with as loud acclamations as those which had so recently greeted the return of the Bourbons. He soon perceived the necessity of gratifying the people with a free constitution. He accordingly confirmed the charter of Louis XVIII., established the freedom of the press, abolished the slave trade, reduced the taxes that pressed heavily on the people, and by other similar concessions much increased his popularity.

4. The allies at the congress of Vienna no sooner heard of his return, than they denounced him as the common enemy of Europe, declared him a usurper, and resolved to unite all their efforts to maintain the treaty of Paris. For this purpose, Great Britain, Austria, Russia, and Prussia concluded a new treaty, whereby each power agreed to maintain an army of 150,000 men, until they had incapacitated him from disturbing the peace of Europe. Although out of the pale of national law, he in return made gigantic preparations to maintain his position by force of arms. An army of 559,000 men was speedily got ready, of whom 217,000 were ready to take the field on the first of June. He however soon perceived that his opponents were much more powerful in number than himself, and hurried across the frontiers on the 14th of June, for the purpose of fighting them before their forces could be united. On the 16th, after a well contested battle, he compelled the Prussians under Blücher to retreat from Ligny to Wavre. On the same day Marshal Ney attacked the English, who made a corresponding movement; first to Gemappe, and afterwards to Waterloo, where preparations were made for concentrating the allied forces. On the memorable 18th, Napoleon, who commanded in person, brought his whole forces to bear upon the British army. The action began at ten o'clock in the morning, and was gallantly sustained on both sides. The French attacks being uniformly unsuccessful, a desperate effort was made

at seven o'clock in the evening to force the left centre of the British by a combined attack of cavalry, infantry, and artillery; but the English guards, not waiting the attack, rushed forward and drove them back in great confusion. At this critical period, the Prussians, under Blücher, came up, attacked the enemy in the right flank, and decided the fate of the day. Bonaparte fled to Paris, where he soon perceived that his dynasty was at an end; the French capital was again occupied with foreign troops. Napoleon again abdicated, and finding all endeavours to escape to America futile, surrendered to the English, and was sent by the allies, divested of all his titles save that of general, to St. Helena, a rocky island in the Atlantic Ocean, where he was detained as a prisoner of war till his death; every attempt to liberate him having been declared a capital crime by parliament. He died in 1821: his remains were removed by permission of the British government, and deposited in the church of the Invalides on the 15th of Dec. 1840.

5. Louis XVIII., who was now permanently restored, returned to his capital on the 6th of July, whereupon an act of amnesty was passed excepting all those who had voted for the death of Louis XVI., or had accepted offices from Bonaparte after his return from Elba. This measure was only put in force against a few of Napoleon's most strenuous supporters.

6. The congress of Vienna now concluded their labours, and they evidently considered their own aggrandizement, as kings, a matter of much greater import than the liberation or independence of nations. Poland was annexed to Russia, Venice to Austria, Genoa to Sardinia, while Prussia received the half of Saxony and a considerable accession of provinces on the left bank of the Rhine. The three monarchs, who had thus encroached on the right of nations, entered into a solemn compact, on the 26th of September, to protect themselves against popular commotions, known as the *Holy Alliance*, from the fact that the contracting parties hypocritically declared that they took the principles and duties of the Christian religion as the basis of their conduct and actions.

7. On the 20th of November, a second treaty of Paris was concluded, by which it was agreed that the French frontiers should be occupied at the cost of France, for not less than three years, by an allied force of 150,000 men, and

seven hundred millions of francs were to be paid as a remuneration for the last contest, the various monuments of art which the victories of the French arms had put into their possession were restored to the nation they had been taken from.

8. Though petty disputes took place from time to time between the royalist and liberal parties, France may be said to have enjoyed domestic tranquillity from the year 1815 to the death of Louis XVIII., which took place on the 16th of September, 1824. In 1823, Louis XVIII., who feared that the revolutionary movements in Spain endangered the safety of France, sent an army of one hundred thousand men into that country, and they speedily compelled the Spaniards to submit to the despotic sway of king Ferdinand.

9. Charles X., brother and successor of the deceased king, took the oath to govern according to the charter. He was however a resolute opposer of the principles of democracy, and lent too willing an ear to the counsels of the jesuits, a religious order, who wished to restore the church to the power it formerly possessed. In 1829, prince Polignac, an ultra royalist, was placed at the head of affairs; violent commotions ensued. In the spring of 1830, the ministers endeavoured to turn the public attention to war, by sending out an armament to seize Algiers, on account of insults previously offered to the French flag. Though success attended the expedition, the ministry gained no popularity by it; the chambers were dissolved in May, and the returns of the elections indicated so strong a majority against the ministry, that Charles X. was induced to violate the charter by issuing two arbitrary ordinances, countersigned by his ministers, abolishing the liberty of the press, and changing the mode of election; and he even went so far as to dissolve the new chamber of deputies before it had met. •

10. These measures speedily excited the indignation of the people. The inhabitants of Paris rose in insurrection, and after a dreadful contest in the streets, which lasted three days, drove the royal troops out of the city. A provisional government was now formed, headed by the duke of Orleans, and the command of the national guard was conferred on the distinguished veteran La Fayette. On the 2nd of August, Charles signed his abdication, and immediately afterwards set sail for England while on the

9th, the chambers, after a thorough revision of the charter, called to the throne the duke of Orleans, who, under the title of Louis Philippe, king of the French, took the prescribed constitutional oath. Though his reign has been disturbed by several attempts at assassination from the republican party, there is every probability that he will transmit the crown of France, accompanied by the good will of the nation at large, to his descendants.

England from the commencement of the reign of George IV., 1820, to the present time.

1. On the demise of George III. which took place on the 29th of January 1820, the regent was proclaimed king, as George IV. In February a conspiracy headed by Thistlewood; to assassinate his majesty's ministers, whilst assembled at a cabinet dinner, was detected, and most of the delinquents taken into custody; five of them were transported for life, but Thistlewood and four others were hanged and beheaded at the Old Bailey. About the same time Mr. Hunt and others were imprisoned for heading a great meeting of radical reformers at Manchester on the 16th of August.

2. In July, a bill of "pains and penalties," was preferred against Caroline, queen consort of George IV. after a lengthened investigation of the most indecent description, the government abandoned further proceedings, on the 10th of November; her name was, however, omitted in the Liturgy, and she was denied the honour of a coronation. Her unexpected death, which took place on the 7th of August 1821, was deeply felt by the nation at large.

3. The years 1821 and 1822, were distinguished by severe agricultural distress, Ireland especially, was in a truly deplorable state, the potato crops having entirely failed. During the two following years, manufactures and commerce flourished exceedingly, while natural causes materially improved the condition of the cultivators of the soil. The great abundance of capital now gave rise to extensive gambling speculations, a reaction ensued in the years 1825, and 1826, which produced a fearful panic throughout the country, no less than sixty-seven country banks either failed, or stopped payment, independent of those in London.

4. Since 1805, the question of catholic emancipation, had more or less occupied the attention of parliament, it at length produced violent agitation of the public mind in Britain, as well as in Ireland. In 1829, the duke of Wellington, who had undertaken the premiership, saw the necessity of removing the civil disabilities of Roman Catholics, as a means of quieting Ireland; he accordingly introduced a bill in parliament for that purpose, which speedily passed both houses, and received the royal assent on the 13th of April, 1829.

5. George IV. died on the 26th of June, 1830, and was succeeded by his brother William IV., who speedily gained great popularity. He had been educated in the navy, and was a decided enemy to toryism, it is therefore no matter of surprise, that the Wellington, a decidedly tory administration, bowed to that of the whigs, headed by earl Grey, in November.

6. The revolution, which took place this year in both France and Belgium, produced a corresponding excitement in England; the whole nation clamoured aloud for parliamentary reform, nor was the liberal minded sailor king backward in responding to the call; while the tories and the aristocracy opposed the measure with a determination well deserving a better cause. After a great deal of popular excitement, and two futile attempts, earl Grey at length succeeded in 1832, in carrying through parliament the celebrated reform bill. In the following year the slave trade was abolished in the colonies, and the enormous sum of £20,000,000, given to the already wealthy planters, as an indemnification for their losses.

7. On the death of William IV. which took place on the 20th of June, 1837, her present majesty, Queen Victoria, ascended the throne. In 1840, she married her first cousin, Prince Albert of Saxe Cobourg and Gotha, by whom she has issue. On the accession of her majesty, Hanover was separated from the British crown, through the operation of the Salic law, which only admitted male heirs: the crown accordingly descended to the duke of Cumberland.

In 1838, a rebellion broke out in Canada, which was with some difficulty suppressed: the chief grievances complained of, have since been removed, and a good feeling established between the colony and the mother-

country. During the years 1839 and 1840, a dangerous revolutionary body, under the name of chartists, committed many atrocious acts of violence, in various parts of the kingdom, most of the ringleaders were apprehended and transported. The movement has since sunk into comparative insignificance.

8. Ever since the close of the last century, the Chinese authorities had been much annoyed by the British smuggling opium into their country ; in 1839, they determined forcibly to suppress the traffic. Captain Elliott was accordingly arrested and compelled to deliver up for destruction 3,000,000 pounds worth of that drug. This led to a war in which the Chinese were worsted. Canton, Ningpo, and the Island of Chusan, speedily fell into the hands of the British, and, shortly afterwards, the Chinese signed a treaty of peace, by which they assigned Hong Kong to the British in perpetuity, threw open their five principal ports to British commerce, and agreed to pay 21,000,000 dollars in the course of three years, as a compensation for the destruction of British property.

9. Lord Auckland's endeavour to increase British influence in India, by deposing Dost Mahommed Khan, and placing Shah Sujah on the throne of Cabul, produced the most direful results, A general rising took place in 1841, and in the following year, the British army, amounting to about 13,000 men, after evacuating Cabul by convention, were attacked by the Affghans in the Koord pass, and with the exception of a few fugitives all slain.

10. In 1840, the distress of the country, and the deficiency of the revenue, induced the Melbourne ministry to propose a modification of the duties on sugar and timber, and an alteration of the duties on corn : these measures were rejected by a majority of thirty-six, and a vote of want of confidence carried in a full house, by a majority of one, whereupon ministers resigned, and the Peel administration was formed. Parliament was immediately dissolved, and the election produced a powerful majority in favour of the new ministers.

11. In 1843, the attention of government was directed to the state of Ireland. The repeal association with O'Connell at its head, had assumed a very formidable appearance, and by means of vast assemblages, named

monster meetings, kept the whole country in a state of great political agitation. An official proclamation was issued, prohibiting one of these meetings, which was to have been held at Clontarf, and O'Connell and his coadjutors were afterwards tried and found guilty of seditious conspiracy; they were, however, speedily released from prison, in consequence of a reversal of the sentence by the House of Lords.

12. In 1845, the agitation produced by the anti-corn-law league, combined with the failure of the potato crops, induced Sir Robert Peel to advocate a total repeal of the corn laws; this measure being opposed by the duke of Wellington and several other members of the cabinet, ministers resigned; whereupon her majesty sent for Lord John Russell, who, just prior to the resignation of ministers, had addressed a circular to his constituents, the citizens of London, expressing his conviction of a necessity for the total abolition of the corn-laws; the whig leader exerted his utmost endeavours to form a cabinet, but all to no purpose. The queen now had no alternative left, but to send again for Sir Robert Peel, who speedily arranged matters, and once more took the helm of affairs. Under these circumstances there is no doubt that despite of the powerful opposition of the great landowners, [the aristocracy;] the Peel cabinet will speedily grant the people what they so long have desired, a total abolition of the taxes on food.

XVIII. *Northern States of Europe from the commencement of the Eighteenth Century.*

1. **RUSSIA.** Peter the Great died in 1725, and was succeeded by his wife, Catherine I. who survived him but two years; her unexpected death excited some suspicions against prince Menzicoff, who had just negotiated a treaty with Austria, and entered into a stipulation to raise the son of the unfortunate prince Alexis to the throne, upon condition of his marrying his daughter.

2. Peter II., grandson to Peter I., ascended the throne in 1727, his short reign presents nothing remarkable, except the downfall of Menzicoff, who was banished to Siberia, where he died in poverty in 1729. Peter II., in whom the male issue of the line became extinct, died of small pox, in 1730, and was succeeded by Anne, duchess of Courland, who, through the influence of a conspiracy, headed by Dolgorouki, ascended the throne contrary to the order of succession established by Peter I. and in prejudice of her eldest sister, the duchess of Mecklenburg. They were both the daughters of Twan, the eldest brother of Peter. During this reign, the election to the Polish crown was decided (1733); a Russian army appeared for the first time in Germany, commanded by Eugene, (1735), and in the same year an expedition was sent against the Turks; Azoph and Oczakoff were regained, and Moldavia conquered, but they were afterwards returned by a treaty of peace declared between Russia and the Ottoman Porte. From this period France and Austria were directly influenced by the politics of Russia.

3. Anne, who died in 1740, left the crown to her sister's grandson, Ivan, a child two years old, and appointed her favourite, count Biren, regent. This man was detested by the Russians, 20,000 of whom he had sent into exile; he was speedily dispossessed of his regency, which was transferred to Anne, mother of Ivan, but her conduct displeasing the Russians, they proclaimed Elizabeth empress, and the infant Ivan was seized and imprisoned (1741). The disputes respecting the Austrian succession gave rise to a war between Russia and Sweden, by which the former obtained part of Finland from the latter, in 1743.

4. Elizabeth died in 1762, and was succeeded by her

nephew, Peter III. then duke of Holstein ; some well meant reforms and innovations led to a conspiracy, headed by his wife, Catherine, by which he was dethroned and put to death, after a reign of six months. His widow now ascended the throne as Catherine II. and she immediately confirmed her power by putting Iman to death ; she then dictated the succession of Sweden, caused the dismemberment of Poland, a large share of which she secured to Russia, and in 1700 sent out an expedition for the liberation of Greece, which though unsuccessful might have been otherwise, had the Russian commanders followed the advice of the Scotch admiral, Elphinstone, who commanded one of the divisions of the fleet.

5. Catherine died in 1769, her son and successor, Paul I. a most capricious and narrow-minded being, excited the hatred of both the nobility and the people ; he was murdered by a band of conspirators in his own palace, in March, 1801, much to the joy of his oppressed people. Alexander I. his son and successor, commenced his reign by various judicious measures ; by repudiating the armed neutrality, he put a stop to the impending hostilities with England. He joined the Austrian coalition against Napoleon, and was an eye-witness of the defeat of the allies at the great battle of Austerlitz. He afterwards endeavoured to continue the war in alliance with Prussia, but the speedy overthrow of that power and the defeat of his own troops at Friedland, induced him to sign the treaty of Tilsit, by which he made peace with Napoleon, and joined the continental system.

6. In 1806, Turkey formed an alliance with France, which induced both Russia and England to declare war against her. The hostilities were carried on very sluggishly, till 1809, when they were resumed with great energy, and the grand vizier, after experiencing several reverses, compelled by the treaty of peace, signed at Bucharest in 1812, to relinquish all claim on the left bank of the Pruth. Meanwhile the continental system as it was called, had almost ruined the national commerce, and Napoleon had seized the territories of the duke of Oldenburg, a near relative of Alexander's ; these circumstances induced a rupture between the two emperors. In 1812, Alexander declared war against the French emperor, which was not brought to a close until the resto-

ration of the Bourbon dynasty in France. The particulars of these hostilities have already been detailed in part 3, sec. 14, § 22. By the treaty of Vienna, Poland was ceded to Russia: she also acquired Finland, East Bothnia and Adland, from Sweden, in 1809, which proved a source of great security to the northern provinces; and considerable additions were again made to this already extensive empire in 1828, by a cession of territory from the Turks, who dreaded a war with so powerful an empire. Alexander died in 1825, and was succeeded by the present emperor, Nicholas, his eldest brother Constantine, having renounced his hereditary right.

7. PRUSSIA. This country possessed but little influence among the kingdoms of Europe prior to the reign of Frederick William, called the great elector, who had ducal Prussia confirmed to him in 1657, and by the treaties of Walau and Bromberg, rendered it independent of the crown of Poland, of which till then it had been a fief. By the revocation of the edict of Nantes, in France (1685), Prussia received an accession of intelligent subjects, which materially advanced the wealth and general improvement of the country. Frederick William was succeeded by his son, Frederick, in 1688, who raised the duchy of Prussia to a kingdom. In January, 1701, he assumed the crown as Frederick I. and his regal title was shortly afterwards acknowledged by the other states of Europe. He died in 1713, and was succeeded by his son Frederick William I. who by prudence, good management, and attention to the army, materially raised the credit and character of his dominions. He died in 1740, leaving 9,000,000 dollars in the treasury, and a well disciplined army of 70,000 men.

8. Frederick II. surnamed the Great, now ascended the throne, and he speedily displayed his ambition and extraordinary talent for war, by opposing the claims of Maria Theresa to the Austrian dominions (part 3, sec. 3, § 7.) This contest, which as far as Prussia was concerned, terminated by the peace of Dresden (1745), left him in possession of Upper and Lower Silesia, with the country of Glatz, in Bohemia. He still farther aggrandized his dominions by joining in the first partition of Poland, and he was, for the greater part of his reign, at war with Austria and Russia, the particulars of which have been already noticed in the other sections of this work. He

died in 1786, and left to his nephew Frederick William II. an extensive and prosperous kingdom, an army of 200,000 men, and upwards of £10,000,000 sterling in the treasury. This monarch possessed none of those shining talents that so distinguished his predecessor. He sent a large army against the French revolutionists (1792), which proved unsuccessful, and led to a peace in 1795; and he took part in the last two partitions of Poland in 1792 and 1795, by which he acquired a great accession of territory, including the city of Dantzic, and upwards of 2,000,000 inhabitants. He died in 1795, and was succeeded by his son, Frederick William III. This prince for a time maintained the peace with France; he joined the armed neutrality in 1800, and afterwards, at the instance of France, occupied the states of Hanover, but when Napoleon had concluded the confederacy of the Rhine, Frederick hurried himself into a disastrous war, by attempting to arrest his gigantic power. The battles of Jena and Auerstadt (1806) placed Prussia at the mercy of the great conqueror; a peace was concluded at Tilsit in 1807, by which Prussia lost nearly half her territories. Westphalia was given to Jerome Bonaparte; Warsaw, erected into a grand duchy, was placed under the protection of the king of Saxony; Dantzic was declared a free town, and by the Berlin decree the remaining ports were completely closed against British commerce.

9. The Prussians were now forced to submit to the most gross insults and oppression from the French. In 1812, they were compelled by their oppressors to furnish an auxiliary force against Russia; on the retreat of the French from Moscow, they rose *en masse* at the call of their sovereign, who immediately concluded a treaty of neutrality with Russia; he afterwards acted in close confederacy with the allies, being constantly with his army till they entered Paris, March, 1814. On the return of Bonaparte, the Prussians were the first to take the field, and they alone had the pre-eminent honour of reaping the splendid glories in the battle of Waterloo, in conjunction with the British. By the treaty of Vienna (1815), Prussia recovered what had been taken from her by the peace of Tilsit, and, in exchange for sacrifices in Poland, received half of Saxony, the duchy of Posen, Swedish Pomerania, Cleves, and other portions of Westphalia.

10. POLAND. No European country has suffered so

severely from a faulty constitution as Poland. With a people in a state of feudal barbarism, an elective crown, and an overbearing nobility, who at each recurring vacancy of the throne, exercised their franchise with ungovernable tyranny and selfishness, the country actually suffered more evils than could possibly have been inflicted by the most tyrannical hereditary monarchy, and that too with all the outward show of unfettered liberty. It was these circumstances that principally induced Russia, Austria, and Prussia, to invade this unfortunate country, and divide their ill-gotten booty among themselves, regardless of the wishes of the poor Poles, who, though untutored peasants, were inspired with an undying love of liberty.

11. We have already noticed the war which arose on the death of Augustus II. in 1733 (*supra*, part 3, sec. 1, § 13), when Stanislaus Leczinsky, though a Pole by birth, and supported by a majority of his countrymen, was excluded through the interference of Germany and Russia, and the election procured for Augustus III. On the death of the emperor Charles VI., Augustus III. laid claim to the whole Austrian succession; and though the pragmatic sanction had entirely annulled his pretensions, he leagued with Bavaria, Prussia, and Russia, in the hope of obtaining at least a part of the Austrian dominions. This alliance not producing the advantages he had anticipated, he changed sides and secretly espoused the cause of the empress queen, who at this period entertained views against Prussia. It was not long before his designs were detected by the Prussian monarch, who revenged himself by taking possession of Dresden, and compelling the whole Polish army to surrender prisoners of war.

12. On the death of Augustus III. in 1763, Catherine II. of Russia, on a pretence of preserving the peace, sent a body of troops into the country, after which she succeeded in bestowing the crown of Poland on count Poniatowski, who was proclaimed king, under the title of Stanislaus Augustus. The bitter enmity that now existed between the *dissidents*, or protestants, and the Roman catholics, rekindled the flame of civil war; the protestants being the weaker party, applied to Russia for aid, which being readily granted, they soon regained their religious liberty; the majority of the Poles, however, formed themselves into a catholic confederacy at Bar, in Podolia, in 1768, and aided by Turkey, endeavoured to throw off the

Russian yoke, but both Turks and confederates were defeated by the Russians.

13. The time now arrived when Poland was to be tranquilized by its dismemberment. In 1772, Russia, Austria, and Prussia, under a pretext of quenching the flame of civil war, united in a scheme of partition. The poor Poles, overwhelmed by the numerical strength of their invaders, in vain appealed to justice; for, had all the remaining powers of Europe united in their cause, they could have brought no force equal to that possessed by the partitioning powers. By this measure, these royal robbers divided about one third of Poland among themselves, and the Polish diet was compelled to sanction the partition.

14. Unhappy Poland now sought to compensate its severe loss by internal improvement; literature was encouraged, industry rewarded, and in May, 1791, a new constitution framed, under the auspices of the king of Prussia, by which the *liberum veto* was abolished, and the crown rendered hereditary in the Saxon family; but unfortunately, the diet neglected to organize a national force capable of protecting the new order of things; Russia fomented dissension by aiding a confederation of factious nobles at Targovitz, for the purpose of annihilating the new constitution. A civil war ensued, in which the king himself deserted to the enemy, and the king of Prussia, though bound in good faith to support the new constitution, joined Russia in a second partition of the Polish dominions, in 1793. In the following year an insurrection broke out, headed by the brave patriot, Kosciusko, but he was soon overpowered and taken prisoner by the Russians. The three royal spoilers now perpetrated their third act of barefaced injustice, by finally dividing among themselves what remained of Poland, in 1795. The king was removed to Russia, deprived of his regal title, and allowed a small pension for life; he died in 1798.

15. By the treaty of Vienna, in 1815, only that part of ancient Poland which had been transferred to Russia retained the name of Poland, and though annexed to Russia for ever, it acquired its own distinct representative government.

16. SWEDEN. Charles XII. who was killed at the siege of Frederickshall (part 2, sec. 66, § 9), was succeeded by his youngest sister, Ulrica Eleanora, in 1718, upon condition that the kingly power should be much curtailed,

and the crown be made elective. In 1720 she relinquished the crown (with consent of the diet) to her consort, the prince of Hesse, who ascended the throne under the title of Frederick I. By the new arrangement the legislative authority was placed in the diet, and the executive rested in the senate; in fact, the king enjoyed little more than the mere name of royalty.

17. In 1738, the rival factions appeared known as the *hats* and *caps*. The former were dissatisfied with the new state of affairs, and under the influence of France, endeavoured to generate a war between Sweden and Russia, in order that the queen of Hungary might be deprived of assistance from that quarter, in the war of the pragmatic sanction. The result of this was, that Sweden inconsiderately declared war against Russia, in 1741, for which she suffered most severely; her losses were however nearly all restored to her by the peace of Abo (1743), on condition that the Swedes should nominate Adolphus Frederick, bishop of Lubeck, a relative of the emperor of Russia, as the successor of their sovereign.

18. Adolphus Frederick ascended the throne in 1751. His reign was terribly disturbed by the *hat* and *cap* factions. He was succeeded in 1771, by his eldest son, Gustavus III., an active and spirited prince, who soon gained the attachment of his people, and overawed the aristocracy by military force. In 1772, he formed a new constitution, which he caused all the members of the senate to sign. By this revolution the prerogatives of the crown were much enhanced, and the designs of Russia, which the previous anarchy had much favoured, were completely thwarted.

19. Though some alterations were made in the constitution in 1789, and a complete naval victory was gained over the Russians in 1790, the disaffected were by no means appeased. In 1792, when he was preparing to assist Louis XIV. (an unpopular undertaking), a conspiracy was formed against him by the disaffected nobles, who procured his assassination at a masked ball. His son and successor, Gustavus IV., being of weak intellect, was deposed in 1809, and his uncle, the duke of Sudermania, proclaimed king, by the title of Charles XIII. This monarch submitted to several modifications of the prerogatives of the crown, and having no heir, Bernadotte, one of Bonaparte's generals, was elected his successor, under

the title of Charles John. His title was acknowledged by the allied powers in 1818, and Norway ceded to him in return for his having joined the confederacy against Bonaparte in 1813.

20. DENMARK. The policy of this kingdom during the 18th, and beginning of the 19th century, has been generally dictated by Russia, and the other leading European countries. Since the close of the 17th century, six kings have occupied the throne, but their reigns present few events of historical interest. In 1730, Frederick IV. was succeeded by his son, Christian VI., a wise and politic sovereign, who promoted knowledge, encouraged the arts and manufactures, and by abolishing the monopolies in the sale of wine, tobacco, and other commodities, materially stimulated commerce. He established the Asiatic company in 1732, and shortly afterwards reopened the trade with Hamburgh. On his death in 1764, his son ascended the throne, as Frederick V., whose reign presents a brilliant sequel to that of his predecessor; commerce and manufactures progressed rapidly, justice was administered with promptness and regularity, while by judicious arrangements, the finances were preserved in a most flourishing condition; he took no part in the wars which now disturbed Europe, and though nearly embroiled with Russia during the reign of Peter III., he succeeded in bringing about an amicable arrangement with Catherine III., in 1762. His son, Christian VII., a weak-minded prince, succeeded to the crown in 1766; he married the princess Caroline Matilda of England, sister to George III. in 1768; shortly afterwards the court was disturbed by an event which to this day remains involved in mystery. Count Struensee, a German physician, who had been raised to the highest offices in the state, having rendered himself obnoxious by his extensive plans of reform, was accused of intriguing with the young queen; his enemies, aided by the powerful influence of the queen dowager and her son, prince Frederick, soon procured his execution, the life of the queen herself was spared through the interposition of the British minister. She retired to Zell, in Germany, where she died on the 10th of May, 1775, in the 24th year of her age. During the latter part of his reign, Christian fell into a state of imbecility, and the queen dowager and prince Frederick governed as co-regents; he died in 1808, when his son, who, in 1784,

had succeeded in obtaining the regency, ascended the throne.

21. Though Denmark endeavoured to remain neuter during the French war, she was induced to join in the northern confederacy in 1800, for which England chastized her most severely. Copenhagen was bombarded by Nelson in 1801, and the whole Danish fleet captured and destroyed; six years afterwards her capital was again attacked, and all her ships of war captured by the British, under admiral Gambier, and lord Cathcart. In 1814, she was compelled to cede Norway to Sweden, receiving in exchange, Pomerania and the isle of Rugen, but these were again, by the treaty of Vienna, assigned to Prussia, who in return, resigned the duchy of Luxemburgh, to Denmark as a trifling compensation.

XIX. *Southern States of Europe, from the close of the 17th Century.*

1. SWITZERLAND. At the commencement of the 18th century, this country was involved in disputes between the protestants and catholics, the equality of religious rights was, however, settled by a convention in 1717. Though the Swiss had endeavoured to maintain their neutrality in the wars of the French revolution, the internal ferment induced by the propagation of republican principles gave France a pretext for interfering. French troops, first under the directory, and afterwards under Napoleon, were introduced into the country, and from that time, till the fall of Napoleon, Switzerland was the constant theatre of war. In 1815, a new federal compact was formed, and acknowledged by the congress of Vienna, by which its number of cantons was increased from nineteen to twenty-two, by the addition of Geneva, Neufchatel, and Valais.

2. ITALY. The Italian states became the theatre of such great events, during the preponderance of the French under Napoleon, that what happened to them in the more early part of the 18th century, seems comparatively unimportant. At the commencement of the French revolution, the Italian states consisted of Savoy, Piedmont, and Sardinia, Tuscany, the two Sicilies, the Venetian republic, the states of the church, and the kingdom of Naples. Upper Italy contained Piedmont and Genoa, the duchies of Parma, Milan, Modena, and the Venetian

republic. Lower Italy contained the grand duchy of Tuscany, the Roman empire, and the kingdom of Naples.

3. In 1792, Savoy and Nice were taken possession of by Generals Montesquieu and Anselm, and immediately annexed to France. Four years afterwards, the French, under Napoleon, after miraculously defeating the Austrians at the bridge of Lodi, captured Milan and Mantua. The states of the popedom also suffered severe losses, the pope formed a very wrong estimate of the power of Napoleon, who speedily caused a large portion of the papal territories to be annexed to France, while the pope himself was forcibly removed from Rome, by order of the French directory.

4. In 1797, the ancient Venetian republic was overthrown, and the *Cisalpine republic* formed. In June, 1797, the Genoese were compelled to adopt the democratic form of government, under the name of the *Ligurian republic*. The revolutionary movement had now spread to the states of the popedom; the people rose in insurrection; French troops, under General Berthier, entered Rome, amid the joy of its inhabitants; Pius VI. was seized and imprisoned; the papal government abolished, and the *Roman republic* proclaimed February 15th, 1789. Pius VI. died in August 1799; in the following month, the British freed Rome from the hands of the French. In March, 1800, the bishop of Tivoli was elected pope under the title of Pius VII. In September 1801, he concluded a *concordat* with the French consular government, by which the Roman catholic religion was re-established there; the Gallican church was, however, placed entirely under the controul of the civil government; canonical institutions being almost the only privilege reserved to the pope.

5. In 1804, Pius VII. officiated at the coronation of Napoleon, his refusal to officiate in the following year, when the French emperor proclaimed himself king of Italy speedily brought about his incarceration, followed by the annexation of the papal territories to France. He regained his liberty, and returned to Rome in 1814, and, in the following year, the congress at Vienna restored the papal states according to their extent before the French revolution, and acknowledged Pius VII. pope; on which oc-

casion he surprised Europe, by reviving the order of jesuits, and re-establishing the inquisition.

6. The king of Naples having joined in the coalition against France, the French directory speedily declared war against him. In 1798, he was compelled to renounce all his continental possessions, and in the following year, after some obstinate fighting, Naples was taken and erected into the Parthenopean republic. It was, however, shortly afterwards reconquered by the British, the old monarchy and government restored, and Ferdinand IV. welcomed back to his throne. In 1805, Ferdinand IV. having, as Bonaparte declared, violated the neutrality of the state, by permitting a combined British and Prussian force to enter his capital, a French army speedily occupied the country, the king was dethroned, and in March 1806, the crown conferred on Joseph Bonaparte. In 1808, Napoleon removed his brother Joseph to Spain, and raised Murat to the throne of Naples, whose attempts to annex Sicily to his usurpation were successfully frustrated by the British. Murat, who, during the hundred days, had negotiated with both the allied sovereigns, and Napoleon, ultimately sided with the latter. The battle of Waterloo, however, decided his fate; exiled from his throne, he made a rash descent on Calabria, where he was made prisoner, and shot as a rebel on the 15th October, 1815. In the succeeding June, Ferdinand IV. was again restored to his dominions. After the overthrow of Napoleon, the congress of Vienna, in 1815, re-established the preponderance of Austria in Italy, and divided north Italy into six states or governments, the appointments thereof being made in accordance with the titles of their lawful sovereigns.

XX. *Of the British Empire in India.*

1. The disputes which arose between the nabobs, or petty governors, after they had shaken off the yoke of the mogul (part. 3, sec. 5, § 2) induced, first the French, and afterwards the English to interfere, and foment dissension for the purpose of territorial aggrandizement; they were guilty of the most gross outrages. At the recall of M. Dupleix, in 1754, both the English and French had acquired considerable territorial possessions in southern India, and they mutually agreed to cease to interfere with the native princes; both parties soon violated this conven-

tion, and ceasing to be auxiliaries, warred against each other as principals. The English, under Clive, speedily drove their opponents from the field, and laid the foundation of an empire, much greater in extent and population than those of the mother country.

2. In 1756, Surajad Dowleh, subahdar of Bengal, took umbrage at the English, who had protected a nabob from his vengeance, and suddenly marched a large army against Calcutta. Finding resistance in vain, the British garrison surrendered; all who could, escaped in boats down the river; the remainder, 246 in number, were made prisoners, and confined in a small room, since named the black hole, where they nearly all perished by suffocation. Immediately this disaster became known, Clive hastened to Calcutta, which he immediately recovered, he then deposed the subahdar, appointed his general Mir Jaffier in his place, and obtained a grant of all the French factories and effects in Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, and a contribution of £2,750,000.

3. Clive now returned to England, leaving the administration of affairs in the hands of a council: this council committed the most flagrant acts of injustice and tyranny, not the least of which was the accepting a bribe of £200,000 to depose Mir Jaffier. Cossim Ali, son-in-law of Mir Jaffier, was elevated in his room: this nabob offended the English by attempting to limit the privileges of their trade. Arms were resorted to, and Mir Jaffier again restored (1763). Sujah Dowlah, subahdar of Oude, and Aulum II., emperor of the Mogul empire, having assisted Cossim Ali, were attacked and defeated by the English (1765). From this period, the recognized sovereignty of the British may be said to commence, the nabob having purchased peace by defraying the expenses of the war and confirming the several districts conquered by the victors within the nominal bounds of the Mogul empire.

4. In May 1765, Clive again landed in India with full powers, as commander-in-chief, president and governor of Bengal; he remained in India about two years, during which period he engaged himself in correcting the multifarious abuses that had corrupted every department of the administration. In the south, besides the authority in the Carnatic, the British had received the northern Circars in grant from the Nizam, on condition of rendering him aid in time of war; but this alliance involved them

in an unpleasant war with Hyder Ali, founder of Mysore.

5. The political importance acquired by the East India company induced the British government to claim a share in their territorial jurisdiction. In 1773, parliament determined that the presidencies of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, should be subject to a governor general and supreme council, the former to be approved by the king; that a supreme court of judicature should be erected by the crown, with an appeal to the privy council; and that all civil and military correspondence should be submitted to the British secretary of state, with power in the crown to annul them.

6. Mr. Warren Hastings, the first governor general under the new system, found the affairs of India in a very unsettled state, but though much opposed by the council, his efforts were crowned with complete success. The French having leagued with the Mahrattas and Hyder Ali, were speedily dispossessed of their settlements of Chandernagore, Masulipatam, and Pondicherry, while by skilful negotiation, the native enemies were much weakened. Hyder Ali, however, proved his determination to wreak his vengeance on the English, by suddenly pouring down upon the Carnatic, in 1780; where for a time he carried all before him. After a protracted war, his army was completely routed by sir Eyre Coote, and his fleet destroyed by sir E. Hughes. The death of Hyder Ali, and the establishment of peace between France and England, brought the war to a termination. Tippoo Saib, son and successor of Hyder Ali, signed a treaty of peace in 1784, highly advantageous to the British.

7. Warren Hastings returned to England in 1785, and was impeached by the house of commons for high crimes and misdemeanours; after a trial of several years' duration he was acquitted. In 1786, lord Cornwallis succeeded as governor of India. In 1790, hostilities were again commenced against Tippoo Saib, who had attacked the rajah of Travancore, an ally of the British. Lord Cornwallis speedily reduced the sultan, and forced him to resign one half of his dominions (1792). In 1798 Tippoo formed an alliance with the French republic, for the annihilation of British influence in India: in the following year, the British took Seringapatam by storm, the sultan was slain in the contest, and his empire divided by the allied con-

querors, for the British had been aided in their operations by the Nizam of the Decan, and the Mahrattas. Lord Cornwallis returned to England in 1793, his successor, John Shore, whose policy was deemed too pacific to insure the supremacy of the British, was recalled. In 1796, lord Mornington, afterwards marquis Wellesley, was then appointed to the office.

8. The company had scarcely freed themselves from their powerful enemy, Tippoo, before a war broke out with the Mahrattas, now the most formidable native power in India. Scindia, one of the princes, had succeeded in taking the provinces of Delhi and Agra in 1788, and had placed general Perrion, a French officer, at the head of the government. This powerful chief took offence at an alliance formed between the British and the peishwa of Poonah, and declared war against them in 1803, in which he was joined by Ragoji Bhosla, rajah of Berar. General Lake took the field in the north, and after inducing Perrion to quit the service of Scindia, rapidly overran the country, and took possession of Delhi and Agra. In the south, Arthur Wellesley, afterwards duke of Wellington, totally defeated the combined armies of Scindia, and the rajah of Berar. A peace was now concluded, by which the upper part of the Dooab Beroach, in Guzerat, and the district Kuttak, with the harbour of Balasore, between Bengal and the Circars, were annexed to the British dominion. The person of the great mogul was also confined in custody by the English who granted him a pension till his death in 1807. In 1804, Holka, another powerful Mahratta prince, made incursions into the Dooab, and endeavoured to seize the person of the mogul by stratagem; he was defeated by lord Lake, who pursued him onto the Sikh country, and took possession of all his territories: they were, however, nearly all returned to him in 1805.

9. Lord Wellesley was now succeeded by lord Cornwallis, who again became governor general. Upon his death, which occurred shortly after his arrival in India, the post was filled by Sir George Barlow until the arrival of lord Minto in India, in 1807, who speedily deprived the French of the isle of France, Mauritius, and the large isle of Java. Lord Minto died in 1813, and was succeeded by the marquis of Hastings in 1814. The pacific policy of lord Minto had encouraged the natives to

commit outrages on the British, the reprisal of which rekindled the flame of war; operations were first directed against the Gorkhas, who inhabited the Himalaya, an extensive mountain country. After two campaigns they were completely subdued, and their country permanently annexed to the British territories (1816). The aggressions of the Pindarees, a kind of freebooters, supported by the Mahratta chiefs, were next punished by a succession of defeats, and the utter annihilation of their hordes; the chiefs that had aided this band of desperadoes, were also subdued, and their territories occupied. In 1818 peace was restored by the final overthrow of the Mahrattas, and though part of the conquered territories was restored, the whole of Hindostan may be said to have been brought under the controul of the British government.

10. In 1823 the marquis of Hastings was succeeded by lord Amherst, who resigned the government into the hands of sir William Bentinck in 1827. In 1824, a war broke out with the Burmese, a nation extending along the eastern shore of the bay of Bengal, and who for some time past had committed a series of depredations along the British frontiers; a considerable naval and military armament was sent to Ragoon, and they captured it without loss: several engagements followed, in which the Burmese were signally defeated, and finally driven within their own territories. In 1826, hostilities were renewed, when the British advanced nearly to Ava, the capital, and compelled the Burmese monarch to purchase peace, by the cession of Assam Aracan, and the Tenasserim provinces. Early in the same year, the fortress of Bhurtpoor, which had been deemed impregnable, was taken by lord Combermere, on the death of the rajah, who had always maintained a strict alliance with the British. His nephew by a successful rebellion, seated himself on the throne, in defiance of his son, who demanded the aid of the company. After the capture of Bhurtpoor, the other fortresses in the rajah's dominions successively surrendered; the usurper was made prisoner, and the lawful prince established on his throne.

11. In 1833, the charter of the company having expired, the parliament deprived them of the exclusive right of trade, by granting to all British subjects free commercial intercourse with both India and China; by the new charter which was granted, for twenty years, the company

retained the political administration of India, while all Hindoos, or other natives, were placed on a level as to political, civil, and military distinctions with Englishmen. The next governor general was Lord Auckland: it was during his administration, that the direful contest commenced with the rude Affghans, which was happily brought to a termination in 1843. All that the British arms have obtained in this disastrous contest, which is of too recent occurrence to require description in this place, is the occupation of the territories of Scinde, which now form part of the British dominions in India.

XXI. *A view of the Progress of Literature, Science, and Art, in Europe, from the commencement of the Eighteenth Century to the present time.*

1. ENGLAND.—Since the reign of Queen Anne, the literature, arts, and sciences of England present a host of great and imperishable names. In history appear those of Robertson, Hume, Gibbon, Goldsmith, Roscoe, Gillies, Ferguson, Mitford, Belsham, Coxe, Hallam, Alison, and Arnold. In theology, the writings of Butler, Sherlock, Warburton, Westley, and Paley, are highly esteemed. In law, Blackstone's Commentaries stand unrivalled, while the name of Adam Smith, author of the *Wealth of Nations*, will descend to posterity as the founder of the science of political economy. In metaphysics, Hume, Stewart, Hartly, and Prior, greatly distinguished themselves, while Franklin, Priestly, Sir Humphry Davy, Wollaston, and in the present day, Dr. Ure, have attracted great attention by their elaborate chemical investigations and discoveries. *Fictitious narrative* attained great perfection by the performances of De Foe, Swift, Fielding, Richardson, Sterne, Smollett, Goldsmith, Edgeworth, and Dr. Johnson, whose *Dictionary, and Lives of the Poets*, have rendered him pre-eminent, as a philologer, critic, and biographer. In poetry appear the names of Prior, Young, author of the *Night Thoughts*, Pope, remarkable for splendour of diction and correctness of versification, Thompson, whose *Seasons* abound with pastoral beauty, Collins, author of the *Ode on the Passions*, Gray, whose elegies abound with exquisite harmony, Cowper, author of *The Task*, and the unrivalled Scotch poet, Robert Burns, whose songs are justly admired for their flowing harmonies, elegance, simplicity, and natural pathos; to these we may add Crabbe,

Southey, Campbell, Wordsworth, Rogers, Moore, Shelley, the immortal Byron, and last, though not least, Sir Walter Scott, whose poems and novels are too well known to require comment. Steel and Addison, whose clever essays on man and manners were published in the *Tatler* and *Spectator*, in the early part of the eighteenth century, may be considered the founders of that species of writing. Since the days of Garrick and Siddons, who conferred immortal honours on the English stage, the drama may be said to have been on the wane; in fact, the taste for dramatic representation has been almost superseded by a growing taste for music.

2. As musical artists, the names of Handel, Boyce, Arne, Shield, Jackson, Charles Dibdin, the father of British sea songs, Linley, Mrs. Billington, and Braham stand pre-eminent. Painting boasts of its Hogarth, Reynolds, West, Barry, Gainsborough, Lawrence, Wilkie, Haydon, and a host of living artists; among whom, may be mentioned the names of Turner and Martin, whose masterly and original conceptions stand unrivalled. Since the commencement of the eighteenth century, many new and valuable discoveries and inventions have been made, the most important of which are steam-engines, steam-boats, steam and atmospheric railways, the electric telegraph, vaccination, printing of linen and cotton cloths, paper for rooms, figured silks and carpets, the spinning jenny, spinning frame, and power loom, stereotype printing, and lithography, musical type, electrotype, lightning conductors, life boats, safety lamps, telegraphs, gas lights, balloons, and a host of electrical, galvanic, pneumatic, optical, and astronomical instruments and apparatus.

3. GERMANY.—Since the commencement of the eighteenth century, Germany has exhibited a development of literary talent and intellectual power truly astonishing. History was successfully cultivated by Mascoo, Mosheim, Horden, Müller, Heerin, Eichhorn, Ranke, and Niebuhr. Metaphysics by Kant, Fichte, Schelling, and Hegel. Chemistry, by Stenhouse, Stahl, and Liebig. Poetry and dramatic writing by Klopstock, Gesner, Wieland, and Kotzebue; and in the departments of imaginative writing are found the names of Göthe, Schiller, and Richter, Music boasts of its Gluck, Bach, Hayden, Mozart, Beethoven, Weber, Mayerbeer, Winter, and Paer. Painting of its Mengs, Retzsch, Dietrich, and Gesner. The history

and geography of the ancients have been illustrated by numerous modern German travellers. Werner acquired reputation as a geologist, Lavater attracted great attention by his treatise on physiognomy, while Drs. Gall and Sphurhiem amazed the world by their new science of *phrenology*.

4. FRANCE.—The great French literary star of the eighteenth century, is undoubtedly Voltaire, whose numerous works, notwithstanding their sceptical tendencies, are still much admired; the writings of the *paradoxical* Rousseau, about the same period, are said to have hastened the French revolution. Imaginative literature was cultivated with success by Le Sage, whose *Gil Blas* has been translated into every European language, Marmontel, whose writings, though sometimes exposed to censure, abound with many beauties; and St. Pierre, author of *Paul and Virginia*. History and antiquity boast of its Rollin, Rapin de Guignes, Madam de Staël, (equally distinguished both in history and fiction,) and in our own times, Thiers. In mathematics, may be mentioned the names of D'Alembert, Laland, La Grange and La Place. The metaphysical writings of Condillac are highly esteemed. Buffon and Cuvier stand pre-eminent in natural history. Volney and Denon for their travels in the east. Lavoisier founded the pneumatic system of chemistry, while Jussieu ranks high among the distinguished prosecutors of the science of botany. The most eminent French painters of this period were Vernet, Vien, and Greuze.



A CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE,

ACCORDING TO ARCHBISHOP USHER'S CALCULATION BY THE
HEBREW TEXT OF THE SACRED WRITINGS.

EXPLANATION OF THE TABLE OF CHRONOLOGY.

THE plan of the following Chronological Table, though extremely simple, requires, as being a new one, a short explanation. In order to give a distinct view of the succession of princes in the chief empires or kingdoms, without employing for that purpose different columns, which distracts too much the attention, and occupies unnecessarily a great deal of space, the series of the sovereigns of different nations is distinguished in this table by their being printed in different typographical characters. Thus, the series of the kings and emperors of Rome is printed in Roman capitals, as—

14. TIBERIUS, emperor of Rome.

The series of popes is distinguishable by this character ¶ prefixed to each name, as—

1513. ¶ Pope Leo X.

That of the sultans of the Ottoman empire by a ~ prefixed to the name.

The names of the emperors of Germany are printed in Roman small capitals, as—

887. ARNOLD, emperor of Germany.

The kings of England are marked by the black Saxon type, as—

1066. W̃illiam (the Conqueror,) king of England.

The kings of Scotland by Italic capitals, as—

1390. ROBERT III., king of Scotland.

And the kings of France are distinguished by the Italic type, as—

1495. Louis XII., king of France.

By this method the succession of the sovereigns in the different kingdoms is immediately distinguishable to the eye, as well as the duration of their reigns, while the intervening space is filled by the remarkable events that occurred in that period all over the world; and thus the connexion of general history is preserved unbroken. A marginal column is added of illustrious persons, which, being appropriated chiefly to men of learning and genius, presents to the reader a view of the progress of science, and affords an easy means of forming an estimate of the literary character of any particular age in the history of mankind: *f.* in the marginal column signifies flourished, *d.* died, and *ab.* about; the other abbreviations are too self-evident to require explanation.

B.C.		
4904	The creation of the world, according to the Hebrew text of the Scriptures.	
	_____ according to the	
	version of the Septuagint, 5872.	
	_____ according to the	
	Samaritan version, 4700.	
	[_____ according to L'Art	
	de verifier les dates, 4963.]	
	[_____ according to Fynes	
	Clinton, 4138.]	
3101	[Commencement of the Indian Era of the Kaliyuga.]	
2;00	[Commencement of the Chinese Cyclical Era of 60 years.]	
2348	The universal deluge. (Hales, 3155) (F. Clinton, 2482).	
2247	The building of Babel. The dispersion of mankind, and the confusion of languages. (Hales, 2554).	
2227	Ninus, king of Assyria, began to reign.	
2217	Nimrod supposed to have built Babylon, and founded the Babylonish monarchy, and Assur to have built Nineveh, and founded the monarchy of Assyria.	
2198	Menes (in Scripture, Misraim) founds the monarchy of Egypt.	Menu's legislation in India.
2084	The shepherd kings conquer Egypt.	
2075	Seiniramis queen of Assyria, [she reigned 42 years].	
2040	Mæris king of Thebes and Memphis in Egypt.	
1996	The birth of Abraham.	
1912	Chedorlaomer subdues several of the kings in Judea.	
1897	Sodom and Gomorrah destroyed by fire from heaven.	
1895	Isaac born.	
1856	Inachus founds the kingdom of Argos in Greece.	
1836	Jacob and Esau born.	
1825	The shepherd kings abandon Egypt, [after reigning 260 years].	
1823	Death of Abraham.	
1796	The deluge of Ogyges in Attica.	
1722	Sesostris, or Rameses, king of Egypt.	
1706	[Jacob goes into Egypt with his family.]	
1635	Joseph dies in Egypt.	
1582	The chronology of the Arundelian marbles begins with this year.	1588 Atlas, astron.
1577	[Rameses Miamum reigns in Egypt, he persecutes the Israelites]	
1571	Moses born in Egypt.	
1556	Cecrops [carries a colony from Egypt,] founds the kingdom of Athens, and institutes marriage.	
1546	Scamander founds the kingdom of Troy.	
1532	Judgment of Areopagus between Mars and Neptune, two princes of Thessaly.	
1529	The deluge of Deucalion in Thessaly.	
1522	The council of the Amphictyons instituted.	
1520	Corinth built.	
1519	Cadmus builds Thebes, and introduces letters into Greece.	

B.C.		
1513	The supposed era of the history of Job.	
1511	Danaus came from Egypt into Greece.	
1510	[Amenophis, the eldest son of Rameses Miamum, reigns in Egypt.]	
1506	Erechtheus, or Erechthonius, institutes the Panathenæan games.	
1491	Moses brings the Israelites out of Egypt.	
—	[Amenophis and his host are swallowed up in the Red sea].	
1453	The first olympic games celebrated in Greece.	
1452	The Pentateuch, or five books of Moses, written.	1450 Hermes Trism, <i>f.</i> Horus Apollo, <i>f.</i>
1451	The Israelites led into the land of Canaan by Joshua.	1450 Bacchus, <i>d.</i>
1439	Pandion king of Athens.	
1415	The book of Joshua supposed to be written by Phineas the high priest.	
1406	Minos reigns in Crete, and gives laws to the Cretans.	
1376	Sethos reigns in Egypt.	1326 Olen, the most ancient composer of hymns.
1322	Belus reigns in Babylon.	1284 Orpheus, Linus, <i>f.</i>
1267	Ninus reigns in Assyria.	
1266	Œdipus marries his mother Jocasta, and reigns in Thebes.	Jason, Hercules, <i>f.</i>
1263	The Argonautic expedition. (According to the Newtonian chronology 937.)	
1257	Theseus unites the cities of Attica.	
1255	The Israelites delivered by Deborah and Barak.	1253 Musæus, <i>poet, f.</i>
1253	Tyre, the capital of Phœnicia, built by the Sidonians.	
1239	Latinus begins to reign in Italy.	
1225	Siege of Thebes. War between Eteocles and Polyntices.	
—	Eurysthenes and Procles kings of Lacedæmon.	
1215	Second war of Thebes, or war of the Epigonoï.	1213 Nestor, <i>f.</i>
1207	Gideon judge of Israel for forty years.	
1202	Teucer built Salamis.	Menelaus, Ulysses, <i>f.</i> Hector Achilles, <i>f.</i>
1193	The Trojan war begins.	
1184	Troy taken and burnt by the Greeks. (According to the Arundelian marbles, 1209.)	1180 Dares Phrygius, <i>h. f.</i> Dictys Cret. <i>f.</i>
1182	Æneas lands in Italy.	
1161	Jephthah judge of Israel.	
1155	Samson born.	
1104	Return of the Heraclidæ into Peloponnesus.	
1099	Samuel delivers Israel.	
1082	[Cheops or Chemis, king of Egypt, said to have built the first pyramid.]	
1079	Saul [first] king of Israel.	
1070	Medon first archon of Athens.	Iokman, <i>Hindoo fabul.</i>
1069	Codrus, king of Athens, devotes himself for his country.	
1055	David king of Israel.	
1013	[Pharaoh king of Egypt gives his daughter in marriage to Solomon.]	1040 Sanchoniathon, <i>f.</i>
1004	Dedication of Solomon's temple.	
980	Rohoboam king of Israel.	
971	Seshaç, or Sesostris, king of Egypt.	907 Homer, Hesiod, <i>f.</i>
923	Ahab and Jezebel reign over Israel.	900 Thaletes, <i>poet, f.</i>
914	Omri king of Israel.	
889	Athaliah, wife of Jehoram, usurps the throne of Judah.	806 Elijah, <i>prophet f.</i>

B.C.	
886	Homer's poems brought from Asia into Greece.
884	Lycurgus reforms the republic of Lacedæmon.
869	The city of Carthage built by Dido.
825	Jeroboam restores the glory of Israel in a reign of forty-one years.
820	Nineveh taken by Arbaces and Belesis, which finishes that kingdom.
806	Jonah preaches repentance to Nineveh.
779	[The race of kings ends at Corinth, they are succeeded by annual magistrates called Prytanes, of whom Automenes was the first.]
776	THE FIRST OLYMPIAD begins [about the 1st of July] in this year.
769	Syracuse built by Archius of Corinth.
767	Sardanapalus king of Assyria.
760	The Ephori, popular magistrates, instituted at Lacedæmon. [Elatus being the first.]
757	Halyattes king of Lydia.
754	Decennial archons elected at Athens.
752	THE FOUNDATION OF ROME BY ROMULUS.
758	Rape of the Sabines.
747	The era of Nabonassar made use of by Ptolemy.
—	The tenth Olympiad.
738	Candaules king of Lydia.
724	Hezekiah tenth king of Judah.
721	Salmanazar takes Samaria, and carries the ten tribes into captivity, which puts an end to the Israelitish kingdom.
718	Gyges king of Lydia.
715	NUMA POMPILIUS, second king of Rome.
711	Sennacherib, king of Assyria, invades Judæa.
710	Dejoces king of Media.
708	Habakkuk prophesied.
703	Coreyra founded by the Corinthians.
700	The twentieth Olympiad.
696	Manasseh sixteenth king of Judah.
688	Judith kills Holofernes, the Assyrian general.
684	Annual archons elected at Athens.
681	Esarhaddon unites the Kingdoms of Babylon and Assyria.
672	TULLUS HOSTILIUS, third king of Rome.
670	Psammeticus king of Egypt.
667	The combat between the Horatii and Curiatii.
660	The thirtieth Olympiad.
658	Byzantium founded by Pausanias, king of Sparta.
—	Phraortes king of Media.
640	ANCUS MARTIUS, fourth king of Rome.
637	The forty years of Ezekiel began.
636	Periander tyrant of Corinth.
—	Nabopolassar, father of Nebuchadnezzar, begins to reign at Babylon.
624	Draco, archon and legislator of Athens.
620	The fortieth Olympiad.
616	TARQUINIUS PRISCUS, fifth king of Rome.
606	Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem, and carries the Jews into captivity.
601	Battle between the Medes and Lydians, who are separated by a great eclipse of the sun, predicted by Thales. (Newton Chron. 585.)
	873 Lycurgus, <i>d.</i>
	896 Elisha, <i>prophet, f.</i>
	768 Isaiah, <i>prophet.</i>
	Joel, <i>prophet.</i>
	Amos, <i>prophet.</i>
	Micah, <i>prophet.</i>
	Obadiah, <i>prophet.</i>
	724 Archilochus, <i>poet, f.</i>
	736 Eumelus, <i>poet.</i>
	Agathon, <i>poet, f.</i>
	Callinus, <i>poet, f.</i>
	Archilochus, <i>poet.</i>
	Tyrtæus, <i>poet.</i>
	Terpander, <i>poet & musician, f.</i>
	Alcman, <i>poet, f.</i>
	Stesichorus, <i>poet, inven. of the chorus, f.</i>
	Arion, <i>musician, f.</i>
	612 Pittacus of Mitylene
	— Bias of Pirene.
	Alcæus, <i>poet, f.</i>
	Sappho, <i>poetess, f.</i>

B.C.		
501	End of the Assyrian empire.—Nineveh taken by Nebuchadnezzar.	596 Ephimenides of Crete.
500	Jeremiah prophesied.	590 Mimnermus, <i>poet. f.</i>
99	Birth of Cyrus the Great.	
94	Solon, archon and legislator of Athens.	Jeremiah, <i>prophet. d.</i>
80	The fiftieth Olympiad.	Sacadas, <i>musician. f.</i>
78	SERVIUS TULLIUS, sixth king of Rome.	Æsop, <i>fab.</i>
72	Nebuchadnezzar subdues Egypt.	Susarion, <i>inv. of comedy.</i>
71	Phalaris tyrant of Agrigentum.	562 Cadmus of Miletus, <i>hist. f.</i>
62	Comedies first exhibited at Athens [by Susarion and Dolon]	—Pherecydes of Scyros, <i>phil. f.</i>
—	Cræsus reigns in Lydia.	558 Solon, <i>d.</i>
51	Confucius, the Chinese philosopher, born.	556 Chilo of Lacedæmon
50	Pisistratus tyrant of Athens.	554 Anacharsis of Scythia.
48	The ancient temple of Delphos burnt by the Pisistratidæ.	552 Ibycus, <i>poet. f.</i>
40	The sixtieth Olympiad.	548 Thales, <i>phil. d.</i>
38	Babylon taken by Cyrus.—End of the Babylonian empire.	Pythagoras, <i>phil. f.</i>
36	Cyrus ascends the throne of Persia.—He puts an end to the Jewish captivity, which had lasted seventy years.	—Theognis, <i>poet. f.</i>
15	[Tragedies first acted at Athens by Thespis]	—Stesichorus, <i>poet. f.</i>
14	TARQUINIUS SUPERBUS, seventh king of Rome.	547 Anaximander, <i>d.</i>
—	Daniel prophesied.	—Phocylides, <i>poet. f.</i>
29	Death of Cyrus the Great.—Cambyses king of Persia.	—Susarion, <i>fab. f.</i>
—	Death of Pisistratus, tyrant of Athens.	546 Orpheus, <i>f.</i>
2	Darius, son of Hystaspes, king of Persia.	544 Bion, <i>poet. f.</i>
10	The Jews begin to build the second temple, which is finished in four years.	Thespis, <i>first exh. trad. f.</i>
0	The Pisistratidæ expelled from Athens, and the Democracy restored.	Anacreon, <i>poet. f.</i>
0	The seventieth Olympiad.	Scylax, <i>geog.</i>
8	Statues erected at Athens to Harmodius and Aristogiton.	Diogenes, <i>phil., born.</i>
9	The Tarquinii expelled from Rome, and the regal government abolished.	519 Zoroaster, <i>Persian phil., f.</i>
8	The first [commercial] alliance between the Romans and Carthaginians.	
4	Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians.	516 Onomacritus, <i>poet. f.</i>
8	The first Dictator created at Rome (Lartius)	Heraclitus, <i>phil., f.</i>
7	Institution of the Saturnalia at Rome.	Rhæcus, <i>inv. of casting metals. f.</i>
3	The port of Piræus built by the Athenians.	Epicharmus, <i>poet. f.</i>
0	The battle of Marathon, in which Miltiades defeats the Persians.	Anaximenes, <i>phil. f.</i>
	The first tribunes of the people created at Rome.	Heraclitus, <i>phil. d.</i>
6	Miltiades dies in prison.	Pythagoras, <i>d.</i>
	Xerxes succeeds his father Darius in the kingdom of Persia.	Theano, <i>phil., f.</i>
5	Coriolanus banished from Rome	Simonides, <i>poet. f.</i>
3	Quæstors instituted at Rome.	Corinna, <i>poet. f.</i>
—	Aristides banished from Athens by the Ostracism.	
0	The Spartans, under Leonidas, cut to pieces at Thermopylæ.	Confucius, <i>Chinese phil., d.</i>
—	Naval victory gained by the Greeks over the Persians at Salamis	
2	Attica laid waste, Athens burnt, by Mardonius.	

B.C.

- 479 Victories over the Persians at Plataea and Mycale.
 — Xerxes leaves Greece.
 477 300 Fabii killed by the Veientes.
 476 Themistocles rebuilds Athens.
 — Valerius triumphs over the Veientes and Sabines.
 — The Roman citizens numbered at 103,000.
 — A great eruption of Ætna.
 — Hiero king of Syracuse.
 471 Volero, the Roman tribune, obtains a law for the election of magistrates in the comitia held by tribes.
 470 Cimon, son of Miltiades, defeats the Persian army and fleet in one day, at the mouth of the river Eurymedon.
 469 Capua founded by the Tuscans.
 464 Artaxerxes (Longimanus) king of Persia.
 — Cimon banished by the Ostracism.
 463 Egypt revolts from the Persians.
 462 The Terentian law proposed at Rome.
 460 The eightieth Olympiad.
 456 Cincinnatus dictator at Rome.
 — The Ludi Sæculares first instituted at Rome.
 455 Commencement of the seventy prophetic weeks of Daniel.
 454 [Nehemiah obtains Artaxerxes' permission to return to Jerusalem.]
 453 The number of the tribunes of the people at Rome increased from five to ten.
 452 The two books of Chronicles supposed to have been written at this time by Ezra.
 451 Creation of the Decemviri at Rome, and compilation of the laws of the twelve tables.
 449 Peace between the Greeks and Persians concluded by Cimon, glorious for Greece.
 — Death of Virginia, and abolition of the Decemvirate.
 448 [The first sacred war concerning the Temple of Delphi.]
 445 The law of Canuleius for the intermarriage of the patricians and plebeians at Rome.
 — Military tribunes created.
 437 The censorship first instituted at Rome.
 436 Pericles in high power at Athens.
 432 Meton's nineteen years' cycle of the moon.
 431 The Peloponnesian war begins, which lasted twenty-seven years.
 430 The history of the Old Testament ends about this time.
 — Great plague at Athens eloquently described by Thucydides.
 — Malachi the last of the prophets.
 428 Death of Pericles.
 423 Darius Nothus king of Persia.
 420 The ninetieth Olympiad.
 418 Disturbances at Rome on account of the Agrarian law.
 414 The Athenians defeated before Syracuse.
 413 Alcibiades accused at Athens, flies to the Lacedæmonians.
- Zeno, the elder, *phil. f.*
 464 Herodicus, *phys. f.*
 Esdras, *prophet*
 Æschylus, *poet. d.*
 Democritus, *phil., f.*
 Aristarchus, *crit., f.*
 Iæucippus, *phil., f.*
 Cratinus, *com., f.*
 Bachylides, *poet., f.*
 Vyas & Valmiki, *Hindoo poets, f.*
 Charon of Lampyrus *hist., f.*
 444 Herodotus, *hist., f.*
 440 Myron, *sculp., f.*
 Empedocles, *phil., f.*
 — Parmenides, *phil., f.*
 435 Pindar, *lyric poet, d.*
 432 Phidias, *sculp., d.*
 431 Scopas, *sculp., f.*
 Eupolis, *com., f.*
 Aristippus, *phil., f.*
 Antisthenes, *phil., f.*
 Agathon, *poet., f.*
 Anaxagoras, *phil., d.*
 424 Polygnotus, *paint., f.*
 416 Meton, *math., f.*
 Tetinus and Calberates, *desi. of the Parthenon,*

B.C.		
412	A council of 400 governs Athens.	Gorgias, <i>orator</i> .
405	Lysander defeats the Athenians at Ægos Potamos.	407 Euripides, <i>d</i> .
404	Artaxerxes II. (Mnemon) king of Persia.	406 Sophocles, <i>d</i> .
—	End of the Peloponnesian war.	
403	Lysander takes Athens—Government of the thirty tyrants.	
401	The younger Cyrus, son of Darius Nothus, defeated by his brother Artaxerxes, and killed.	Cebes, <i>f</i> . Euclid, <i>phil.</i>
—	Retreat of the ten thousand Greeks.	Euclid, <i>Meg., phil., f</i> .
—	Thrasybulus drives out the thirty tyrants, and delivers Athens.	401 Socrates, <i>phil., d</i> .
399	A Læctisternium celebrated at Rome for the first time.	
397	The lake of Alba drained by the Romans.	
396	Syracuse unsuccessfully besieged by the Carthaginians.	397 Zeuxis, <i>painter, f</i> .
391	Marcus Furius Camillus dictator at Rome.—Veii taken.	Thucydides, <i>hist., d</i> .
387	Dishonourable peace of Antalcidas between the Spartans and Persians.	Peiloxenus, <i>poet, f</i> .
385	Rome taken by the Gauls under Brennus.	398 Aristophanes, <i>d</i> .
382	Phæbidas, the Spartan, seizes the citadel of Thebes.	Ctesias, <i>hist., d</i> .
380	Pelopidas and Epaminondas deliver Thebes from the Lacedæmonians.	
—	The hundredth Olympiad.	
371	Battle of Leuctra in which the Lacedæmonians are defeated by the Thebans under Epaminondas.	378 Lysias, <i>orator, d</i> .
364	Pelopidas defeats the tyrant of Phæra, but is killed in battle.	Timæus, <i>phil, d</i> .
363	Battle of Mantinea, in which Epaminondas is killed.	Antiphanes, <i>com., f</i> .
362	Curtius leaps into a gulph in the forum at Rome.	Pelopidas, <i>d</i> .
361	Darius Ochus (or Artaxerxes III.) king of Persia. (According to Blair, 358.)	Democritus, <i>ob. d</i> .
358	War of the allies against Athens.	361 Hippocrates, <i>d</i> .
—	Philip of Macedon takes Amphipolis, Pydna, and Potidea.	359 Xenophon, <i>hist., d</i> .
357	Dion overcomes the party of Dionysius at Syracuse.	Theopompus, <i>hist., f</i> .
356	[Revolt of Artabazus against Ochus king of Persia.]	
—	Alexander the Great born at Pella, in Macedonia.	
—	The temple of Diana, at Ephesus, burnt by Erostratus.	
—	The Phocian, or sacred war, begins in Greece.	
—	Philip conquers the Thracians, Pæoniens, and Illyrians.	
350	Darius Ochus subdues Egypt.	
348	Philip of Macedon takes Olynthus.	Plato, <i>phil., d</i> .
—	End of the sacred war.	
347	Dionysius restored at Syracuse, after an exile of ten years.	
346	Philip admitted a member of the Amphictyonic Council.	
343	Syracuse taken by Timoleon, and Dionysius the tyrant finally banished.	

B.C.

- 343 The war between the Romans and Samnites, which led to the conquest of all Italy.
- 340 The hundred and tenth olympiad.
- The Carthaginians defeated near Agrigentum.
- P. Decius devotes himself to his country.
- 338 Battle of Cheronea gained by Philip over the Athenians and Thebans.
- [Ochus king of Persia is poisoned by Bagoas his favourite.]
- 337 Philip chosen generalissimo of the Greeks.
- 336 [Arses king of Persia is assassinated by Bagoas, Darius Codomanus succeeds him.]
- Philip murdered by Pausanias.
- Alexander the Great, king of Macedon.
- Alexander the Great destroys Thebes.
- 335 Darius III. (Codomanus) king of Persia.
- Alexander chosen generalissimo by the States of Greece.
- 334 Alexander defeats the Persians on the banks of the Granicus.
- 333 The Persians defeated by Alexander at Issus.
- 332 Alexander conquers Egypt, and takes Tyre.
- 331 Darius defeated by Alexander at Arbela.
- 330 Darius Codomanus killed. End of the Persian empire [which had subsisted 206 years from its foundation under Cyrus the Great.]
- Alexander takes possession of Susa, and sets fire to the palace of Persepolis.
- 328 Alexander passes into India, defeats Porus, founds several cities, penetrates to the Ganges.
- The voyage of Nearchus from the Indus to the Euphrates.
- 325 Papirius Cursor, dictator at Rome, triumphs over the Samnites.
- [Demosthenes is banished for having received presents from Harpalus.]
- 324 Alexander the Great dies at Babylon, at the age of thirty-three [April 21st].
- 323 [The Athenians revolt and engage the states of Greece to enter into a league with them, Demosthenes is recalled from banishment.]
- 321 The Samnites make the Roman army pass under the yoke at Caudium.
- 320 Ptolemy carries one hundred thousand Jews captives into Egypt.
- 317 Agathocles tyrant of Syracuse.
- 312 Era of the Seleucidæ.
- 311 Cassander, Lysimachus, and Ptolemy, conclude a peace with Antigonus.
- 304 Demetrius besieges Rhodes.
- 303 Demetrius restores the Greek cities to their liberty.
- 301 Battle of Ipsus in Phrygia, in which Antigonus is defeated and slain.
- Fabius Maximus and Valerius Corvus, Dictators.
- 300 Seleucus founds Antioch, Edessa, and Laodicea.
- The hundred and twentieth Olympiad.
- 298 Athens taken by Demetrius Poliorcetes.
- 294 Seleucus resigns his wife Stratonice to his son Antiochus.
- Isocrates, orator, d.
- Parrhasius paint. f.
- Aristides, paint. f.
- Timanthes, paint. f.
- Apelles, paint. f.
- [332 Eudoxus, Astronomer d.]
- 326 Lysippus, sc. f.
- Æschines, orator, f.
- Onesicrates, hist. f.
- Eudemas, math. f.
- Diogenes, phil. d.
- 322 Demosthenes, ora.
- Aristotle, d.
- Meander, com. f.
- Philemon, com. f.
- 314 Xenocrates, phil.
- Pyrrho, phil. d.
- 300 Diphilus, com. f.
- Posidippus, com. f.
- Arceas, math. f.
- Euclid, math. f.

- b.C.
 773 [Foundation of the city Seleucia by Seleucus.] 293 Menander, *poet, d.*
 286 Law of Hortensius, by which the decrees of 288 Praxiteles, *sc. d. post*
 the people were allowed the same force as
 those of the senate.
 285 The astronomical era of Dionysius of Alex- Theophrastus, *f.*
 andria.
 [Foundation of the kingdom of Pergamus by
 Philiterrus.]
 284 Ptolemy Philadelphus king of Egypt. 284 Demetrius Phal. *d.*
 The library of Alexandria founded. Callimachus, *poet, f.*
 281 Commencement of the Achæan league. 282 Theocritus, *pie, f.*
 280 Pyrrhus invades Italy. Megasthenes, *hist. f.*
 Antiochus Soter king of Syria. Lycophron, *poet, f.*
 279 [Irruption of Gauls into Macedonia.]
 277 The translation of the Septuagint made by the Aratus, *poet, f.*
 order of Ptolemy Philadelphus.—(Playfair,
 285.)
 Antigonus Gonatas reigned in Macedon thirty-
 six years.
 Pyrrhus unsuccessful against the Carthaginians
 in Sicily.
 [The Gauls defeated by Antiochus.]
 274 Pyrrhus totally defeated by the Romans near
 Beneventum, evacuates Italy.
 272 The Samnites finally subdued by the Romans. 272 Polemo, *phil. d.*
 270 [Death of Pyrrhus at the siege of Argos.] 270 Epicurus, *phil. d.*
 266 Silver money is coined at Rome for the first 268 Berosus, *hist. f.*
 time.
 265 The citizens of Rome numbered at 292,224.
 264 The first Punic war begins —The chronicle of Zeno the younger, *phil. d.*
 Paros composed.
 [Death of Philiterrus king of Pergamus, Eume-
 nes his nephew succeeds him.]
 Provincial Questors instituted at Rome.
 The hundred and thirtieth Olympiad.
 First naval victory obtained by the Romans,
 under the consul Duilius.
 Regulus defeated and taken prisoner by the
 Carthaginians, under Xantippus.
 253 Manasseh chosen high priest of the Jews.
 251 Great victory of Metellus over Asdrubal.
 250 The Romans besiege Lilybæum,—are defeated
 by Hamilcar.
 247 [Death of Ptolemy Philadelphus king of Egypt,
 —Ptolemy Euergetis his son succeeds him.]
 241 The end of the first Punic war.
 — Attalus, king of Pergamus, succeeds Eumenes.
 240 Comedies are first acted at Rome.
 235 The temple of Janus shut for the first time
 since the reign of Numa.
 228 Hamilcar killed in Spain.
 225 Great victory of the Romans over the Gauls.
 222 [The Colossus of Rhodes thrown down by an
 earthquake.]
 [Death of Ptolemy Euergetes king of Egypt,—
 Ptolemy Philopater succeeds him.]
 220 The hundred and fortieth Olympiad.
 219 Hannibal takes Saguntum.
 218 The second Punic war begins.
 217 Hannibal defeats the Romans under Flaminius.
 Fabius Maximus dictator.

B.C.

- 216 Battle of Cannæ, in which the Romans are totally defeated by Hannibal.
- 212 Philip II. of Macedon defeats the Ætolians. | Archimedes, *math. d.*
 — Marcellus takes Syracuse, after a siege of two years.
- 211 Capua surrenders to the Romans.
 — Antiochus the Great conquers Judea.
- 210 Asdrubal vanquished in Spain by the Scipios.
 — Publius Scipio sent into Spain, takes New Carthage.
- 206 Philopœmen prætor of the Achæans.
- 204 [Death of Ptolemy Philopater king of Egypt. Ptolemy Epiphanes (although a child 5 years old) succeeds him.]
- 203 The Carthaginians recall Hannibal to Africa. | 203 Nævius, *poet. d.*
 Sophonisba poisoned by Massinissa.
- 201 Syphax led in triumph to Rome by P. Scipio.
 — [Philip besieges and takes Abydos.]
- 200 [The first Macedonian war begins.]
- 197 Philip defeated by the Romans at Cynocephale.
- 196 The battle of Zama, and end of the second Punic war. | 194 Apollonius Rhodius, *poet. f.*
- 190 The Romans enter Asia, and defeat Antigonus at Magnesia. | 185 Philopœmen, *d.*
 184 Plautus, *poet. d.*
- 183 The elder Cato censor at Rome.
- 180 The hundred and fiftieth Olympiad.
 — [Death of Ptolemy Epiphanes king of Egypt, Ptolemy Philometer succeeds him.] | 180 Bion, *poet. f.*
- 179 [Death of Philip king of Macedonia, Perseus his son succeeds him.]
- 173 War between the Romans and Perseus, king of Macedon.
- 172 Antiochus defeats the Generals of Ptolemy in Egypt. | —Moschus, *poet. f.*
- 170 Antiochus Epiphanes takes and plunders Jerusalem.
- 169 Terence's comedies performed at Rome. | 169 Ennius, *poet. d.*
- 168 [Antiochus obliges all nations in subjection to him to renounce their own religion and conform to his. The martyrdom of the Maccabees and the death of Eleazar happened at this time.]
- 167 Perseus defeated by Paulus Æmilius, and brought prisoner to Rome. End of the kingdom of Macedon.
- 166 Judas Maccabeus drives the Syrians out of Judea. | Cæcilius, *poet. d.*
- 164 The Roman citizens numbered at 327,032.
- 149 The third Punic war begins.
- 148 [Macedonia is reduced into a province of the Roman empire.] | 159 Terence, *poet. d.*
 156 Aristarchus, *gr. d.*
 —Hipparchus, *phil. f.*
 157 M. Portius Cato, *orat. and hist.*
 157 Philo Byzant. *f.*
- 147 Metellus defeats the Achæans.
- 146 Corinth taken by the consul Mummius.
 — Carthage taken and destroyed by the Romans.
- 140 The hundred and sixtieth Olympiad.
- 137 The Romans shamefully defeated by the Numantines.
- 135 The history of the Apocrypha ends.
 — Antiochus besieges Jerusalem.
- 133 Tiberius Gracchus put to death. | 140 Critolaus, *phil. d.*
 139 Accius, *tr. p. d.*

B.C.

- 133 Numantia taken. Pergamus becomes a Roman province.
- 121 Caius Gracchus killed.
- 113 Carbo the consul drives the Cimbri and Teutones out of Italy.
- 111 The Jugurthine war begins.
- 109 Marius defeats Jugurtha.
- 103 Jugurtha starved to death at Rome.
- 102 Marius defeats the Teutones and Cimbri.
- 100 The hundred and seventieth Olympiad.
- 91 The war of the allies against the Romans.
- 90 Sylla defeats the Marsi, Peligni, Samnites, &c.
- 89 The Mithridatic war begins.
- 88 Civil war between Marius and Sylla. Sylla takes possession of Rome.
- 86 Mithridates, king of Pontus, defeated by Sylla.
- 83 Sylla defeats Norbanus.—The capitol burned.
- 82 Sylla perpetual dictator.—His horrible proscription.
- 80 Julius Caesar makes his first campaign.
- 79 Cicero's first oration for Roscius.
- 78 Sylla resigns all power, and dies.
- 77 The war of Sertorius.
- 72 Lucullus repeatedly defeats Mithridates, and reduces Pontus to a Roman province.
- 70 Crassus and Pompey chosen consuls at Rome.
- 63 Victories of Pompey. He takes Jerusalem, and restores Hyrcanus to the government of Judea.
- 62 Catiline's conspiracy quelled at Rome by Cicero.
- 61 Pompey enters Rome in triumph.
- 60 The hundred and eightieth Olympiad.
- 59 The first triumvirate: Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar.
- Cæsar proposes a new Agrarian law.
- 58 Clodius, the Tribune, procures the banishment of Cicero.
- 57 Cæsar defeats Ariovistus in Gaul.
- Cicero brought back from exile with high honour.
- 55 Cæsar lands in Britain for a short campaign.
- 54 Cæsar invades Britain a second time, and conquers a part of the country.
- 53 Crassus killed in Mesopotamia.
- 52 Milo defended by Cicero for the slaughter of Clodius.
- 49 Cæsar passes the Rubicon, and marches to Rome.
- Commencement of the era of Antioch, October, A.C. 49.
- 48 Battle of Pharsalia, in which Pompey is defeated.
- Pompey slain in Egypt.
- The Alexandrian library of 400,000 volumes burnt.
- 46 Cato, besieged in Utico, kills himself.
- 45 The Calendar, reformed by Julius Cæsar, by introducing the solar year instead of the lunar. The first Julian year began 1st January, 45 A.C.
- 131 Pacuvius, *tr. p. d.*
—C. Piso, *hist. f.*
- 128 Carneades, *phil. d.*
- 124 Polybius, *hist. d.*
- 115 Apollodorus, *gr. d.*
- Lucilius, *poet. d.*
- 101 Sextus Turpilius, *com. d.*
- L. Afranius, *com. f.*
- Alexander Polyb. *f.*
- 84 Cinna, *d.*
- 79 L. C. Sisenna, *hist. f.*
- 73 Sertorius, *d.*
- Terentius Varro, *f.*
Hortensius, *orator. f.*
T. Pomp. Atticus, *f.*
- Asinius Pollio, *f.*
- 60 C. Dec. Laberius, *min. f.*
- Lucretius, *poet. d.*
- 51 Posidonius, *d. post.*
- 49 Trogus Pompeius, *f.*
- 46 Alex. Polyhistor, *f.*
- 41 Julius Cæsar, *d.*

B.C.

- 44 Julius Cæsar killed in the senate-house. Diodorus Siculus, *hist. f.*
 — Octavius, grandnephew and heir of Julius Cæsar, comes to Rome, and is opposed at first by Antony. M. T. Cicero, *d.*
 43 Second Triumvirate: Octavius, Mark Antony, and Lepidus. A. Hirtius, *hist. f.*
 42 Battle of Philippi, in which Brutus and Cassius are defeated. 40 Catullus, *poet. f.*
 40 Herod marries Mariamne, daughter of Herod Antipas, and obtains from the Romans the government of Judea. M. Junius Brutus, *f.*
 34 Antony divides Armenia among the children of Cleopatra. 35 Sallustius, *hist. d.*
 33 Mauritania reduced into a Roman province. Pub. Syrus, *poet. f.*
 32 War declared by the Senate against Antony and Cleopatra. Manilius, *poet. f.*
 31 Battle of Actium, and end of the Roman Commonwealth. 33 Dioscorides, *phys. d.*
 — OCTAVIUS emperor of Rome. Corn. Gallus, *poet. f.*
 30 Death of Mark Antony and Cleopatra. Alexandria taken by Octavius. Messala Corvinus, *hist. f.*
 27 Octavius receives the title of Augustus. 26 Terentius Varro, *d.*
 23 Death of Marcellus.—Agrippa in Spain. Propertius, *poet. f.*
 20 [The hundred and ninetieth Olympiad.] 25 Co. n. Nepos, *hist. d.*
 — Porus King of India sends an embassy to Augustus. 19 Virgilius Maro, *d.*
 17 Augustus revives the secular games. Vitruvius, *arch. f.*
 15 The Rhæti and Vindelici defeated by Drusus. 12 M. V. Agrippa, *d.*
 10 The temple of Janus shut by Augustus for a short time. Grat. Faliscus, *poet. f.*
 8 Augustus corrects an error of the Roman calendar. Horatius Flaccus, *d.*
 — Death of Mænas. [M. Sævola *Tetus. f.*]
 5 Augustus ordains a census of all the people in the Roman empire. [4 Varius Flaccus *Gr. f.*]
 4 JESUS CHRIST is born four years before the commencement of the vulgar era. N. Damascenus, *f.*
 Laheo, Capito *lect. f.*
 Hyginus, *Math. f.*

Years after Christ.

- 9 The Roman legions, under Varus, cut to pieces in Germany. 4 Phædrus, *poet. f.*
 — Ovid the poet banished to Tomos. 5 Dionysius Hal. *hist. f.*
 14 TIBERIUS emperor of Rome. Titus Livius, *hist. d.*
 19 Germanicus dies at Antioch. 17 Ovidius, *poet. d.*
 — Tiberius banishes the Jews from Rome. Tibullus, *poet. d.*
 21 [The two hundredth Olympiad.] 17 Celsus, *med. f.*
 25 [The two hundred and first Olympiad—here the Olympiads end.] 23 Valerius Max. *f.*
 26 John the Baptist preaches in Judæa the coming of the Messiah. 25 Strabo, *geo. d.*
 27 Tiberius retires to the island of Capræ. —
 — Pilate made governor of Judæa. Velleius Paterculus, *d.*
 31 Sejanus disgraced, and put to death by Tiberius. 32 John the Baptist, *d.*
 — St. Peter first pope. —Columella *f.*
 — JESUS CHRIST is crucified. 37 Isidorus, *geo. f.*
 35 The conversion of St. Paul. Philo Judæus, *f.*
 37 CALIGULA, emperor of Rome.
 39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
 40 The name of Christians first given to the disciples of Christ at Antioch.

A.D.

- 41 **CLAUDIUS**, emperor of Rome.
 — Herod prosecutes the Christians, and imprisons Peter.
 42 **Sergius Paulus**, proconsul, converted by St. Paul. 42 **Asinius Pollio**, *f.*
 43 Expedition of Claudius into Britain.
 44 St. Mark writes his gospel.
 45 **Vespasian** in Britain. 45 **Pomp. Mela**, *geo. f.*
 47 The *Ludi Sæculares* performed at Rome.
 48 **Messalina** put to death by Claudius, who marries Agrippina, the mother of Nero.
 50 St. Paul preaches in the Areopagus at Athens. 50 **Arctæus Capp. d.**
 51 **Caractacus**, the British king, is carried prisoner to Rome.
 54 **NERO**, emperor of Rome.
 55 **Britannicus** poisoned by Nero.
 59 Nero puts to death his mother Agrippina. 56 **Cornutus**, *phil. f.*
 60 **Suetonius Paulinus** defeats the Britons. **Apollonius Tyanensis**, *f.*
 61 The Britons, under Queen Boadicea, defeat the Romans. **Quint Curtius**, *hist. f.*
 64 The first persecution of the Christians raised by Nero. 62 **Persius Sat. d.**
 — Rome set on fire by Nero. 65 **An. Seneca**, *phil. d.*
 66 **Bareas Soranus** and **Thrasea Pætus** put to death by Nero. — **An. Lucinus**, *poet. d.*
 — ¶ **Pope Linus**. 66 **Pretonius Arb. d.**
 67 Massacre of the Jews by **Florus**, at Cæsarea, Ptolemais, and Alexandria. **Dioscorides**, *med. f.*
 — St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
 — **Josephus**, the Jewish historian, governor of Galilee.
 — ¶ **Pope St. Clement**.
 68 **GALBA**, emperor of Rome.
 69 **OTHO**, emperor of Rome.
 — **VITELLIUS**, emperor of Rome.
 70 **VESPASIAN**, emperor of Rome.
 — Jerusalem taken and destroyed by Titus. 74 **Silius Italicus**, *pt. d.*
 77 ¶ **Pope St. Cletus**. **Clemens, Romanus**, *f.*
 78 A great pestilence at Rome 10,000 dying in one day. **Pliny Elder**, *nat. his.*
 79 **TITUS**, emperor of Rome. **Florus**, *hist. f.*
 — **Herculaneum** and **Pompeii** destroyed by an eruption of **Vesuvius**.
 80 Conquest of **Agricola** in Britain.
 81 **DOMITIAN**, emperor of Rome.
 83 ¶ **Pope Anacletus**.
 89 **Apollonius of Tyanea** defends himself before Domitian against an accusation of treason.
 95 Dreadful persecution of the Christians at Rome, and in the provinces.
 — St. John writes his *Apocalypse*.
 — — writes his *Gospel*.
 96 **NERVA**, emperor of Rome.
 ¶ **Pope Evaristus**.
 98 **TRAJAN**, emperor of Rome.
 — Trajan forbids the Christian assemblies.
 103 The **Dacians** subdued by Trajan.
 107 Trajan's victories in Asia.
 108 St. **Ignatius** devoured by wild beasts at Rome.

A.D.

- 108 ¶ Pope Alexander I.
 115 The Jews in Cyrene murder 200,000 Greeks and Romans.
 117 ¶ Pope Sixtus I.
 118 ADRIAN, emperor of Rome.
 — Persecution of the Christians renewed by Adrian, but afterwards suspended.
 120 Adrian's wall built across the island of Britain.
 127 ¶ Pope Telesphorus.
 131 Adrian visits Egypt and Syria.
 132 Adrian publishes his perpetual edict or code of the laws.
 135 The Romans destroyed 580,000 Jews in Judæa.
 137 Adrian rebuilds Jerusalem by the name of Ælia Capitolina.
 138 ¶ Pope Hyginus.
 — ANTONINUS PIUS, emperor of Rome.
 139 [The wall of Antoninus built between Forth and Clyde.]
 142 ¶ Pope Pius I.
 150 ¶ Pope Anicetus.
 154 Justin Martyr publishes his Apology for the Christians.
 161 MARCUS AURELIUS ANTONINUS, and LUCIUS VERUS, emperors of Rome.
 162 ¶ Pope Soter.
 167 Polycarp and Pionices suffered martyrdom in Asia.
 169 War with the Marcomanni.
 171 Death of Verus. Marcus Aurelius sole emperor.
 — ¶ Pope Eleutherius.
 177 Persecution of the Christians at Lyons.
 180 COMMODUS, emperor of Rome.
 185 ¶ Pope Victor I.
 189 The Saracens defeat the Romans.—This people for the first time mentioned in history.
 193 PERTINAX, emperor of Rome.—DIDIUS JULIANUS purchases the empire.
 — PESCENNIUS NIGER declared emperor in the East.
 — SEPTIMUS SEVERUS, emperor of Rome.
 194 Niger defeated by Severus, and put to death.
 195 Byzantium besieged, surrenders to Severus.
 196 ALBINUS proclaimed emperor in Britain.
 197 Albinus defeated by Severus, he kills himself.
 — ¶ Pope Zephyrinus.
 202 The fifth persecution against the Christians, principally in Egypt.
 208 Severus, with his sons Caracalla and Geta, in Britain.
 209 The Caledonians repulsed, and a wall built between the rivers Forth and Clyde.
 211 CARACALLA and GETA emperors of Rome.
 212 Caracalla murders Geta.
 217 Caracalla put to death.
 — MACRINUS, emperor of Rome.
 — ¶ Pope Calixtus I.
 218 HELIOGABALUS, emperor of Rome.
 222 ALEXANDER SEVERUS, emperor of Rome.
 A tribute paid by the Romans to the Goths.
- 119 Plutarch, *d.*
 C. Suetonius, *hist. f.*
 128 Juvenal, *poet. d.*
 130 Aul. Gellius, *d.*
 Æli. Adrianus, *f.*
 Arrian, *hist. & phil. f.*
 Terentianus Maurus, *f.*
 Justin Martyr, *f.*
 140 Ælianus, *hist. d.*
 L. Apuleius, *f.*
 Ptolemy, *geog. f.*
 148 Appian, *hist. d.*
 M. Antoninus, *phil. f.*
 Epictetus, *phil. d.*
 163 Pausanias, *hist. d.*
 165 Polycarp, *bish. f.*
 167 Justin, *hist. f.*
 170 Demetrius Phaler., *d.*
 Lucian, *d.*
 Julius Pollux, *d.*
 Herodianus, *hist. f.*
 Iamblichus, *poet. f.*
 Galen, *phys. d.*
 Sextus Empiricus, *f.*
 Maximus Tyrius, *phil. f.*
 Plotinus, *phil. f.*
 Julius Solinus, *f.*
 196 Athenæus, *d.*
 Tertullian, *d.*
 202 Irenæus, *d.*
 Hegesippus, *hist. f.*
 Dionysius Cato, *poet. f.*
 Philostratus, *f.*
 206 Clemens Alex. *f.*
 207 Minucius Felix, *f.*
 Papinianus, *d.*
 213 Oppian, *poet. d.*
 220 Julius Africanus, *f.*
 Dioënes Laertes, *d.*

A.D.		
222	¶ Pope Urban I.	<i>Ælianus, hist. f.</i>
226	The Persians totally defeated by Alexander Severus.	229 Dion Cassius, <i>f.</i>
230	¶ Pope Pontianus.	Ulpianus, <i>f.</i>
235	¶ Pope Anterus.	Julius Paulus, <i>f.</i>
—	MAXIMINUS assassinates Alexander Severus, and is proclaimed emperor of Rome.	L. Pomponius, <i>f.</i>
236	The sixth persecution of the Christians.	
—	¶ Pope Fabianus.	
237	Maximinus defeats the Dacians and Sarmatians.	
238	MAXIMUS and BALBINUS, emperors of Rome.	Censorius, <i>f.</i>
—	GORDIAN, emperor of Rome.	Modestinus, <i>Ictus, f.</i>
242	Gordian defeats the Persians under Sapor.	243 Ammonius, <i>d. post.</i>
244	PHILIP THE ARABIAN, emperor of Rome.	247 Herodian, <i>hist. f.</i>
248	The Secular Games celebrated at Rome.— Pompey's Theatre burnt.	
—	St. Cyprian elected bishop of Carthage.	
249	DECIUS, emperor of Rome.	
250	The seventh persecution of the Christians under Decius.	
—	¶ Pope St. Cornelius.	
251	VIRIUS VOLUSIANUS, emperor of Rome.	
—	GALLUS, emperor of Rome.	
252	¶ Pope Lucius I.	
253	The Goths, Burgundians, &c. make an irruption into Mœsia and Pannonia.	
254	VALERIANUS, emperor of Rome.	Origen, <i>d.</i>
—	¶ Pope Stephen I.	
257	The eighth persecution of the Christians.	
—	¶ Pope Sixtus II.	
259	The Persians ravage Syria.	258 Cyprian, <i>d.</i>
—	¶ Pope Dionysius.	
260	GALLIENUS, emperor of Rome.	
—	The temple of Diana at Ephesus burnt.	
261	Sapor, the Persian, takes Antioch, Tarsus, and Cæsarea.	
267	The Heruli invade and ravage Greece.	
268	CLAUDIUS II., emperor of Rome.	Novatianus, <i>f.</i>
269	The Goths and Heruli, to the number of 320,000, defeated by Claudius.	
—	¶ Pope Felix I.	
270	AURELIAN, emperor of Rome.	270 Plotinus, <i>phil. d.</i>
271	The Alemanni and Marcomanni ravage the empire.	
272	The ninth persecution of the Christians.	
273	Zenobia, queen of Palmyra, defeated by Aurelian at Edessa.	Longinus, <i>d.</i>
274	¶ Pope Eutychianus.	Achilles Tatius, <i>ast. f.</i>
275	TACITUS, emperor of Rome.	
276	FLORIANUS, emperor of Rome.	Paulus Samosatenus, <i>f.</i>
277	PROBUS, emperor of Rome.	276 Modestus, <i>f.</i>
282	CARUS, emperor of Rome, defeats the Quadi and Sarmatians.	280 Manes, <i>phil. d.</i>
—	CARINUS—NUMERIANUS, emperors of Rome,	
283	¶ Pope Caius.	
—	Fingal King of Morven died.	
284	DIOCLETIAN, emperor of Rome.	Nemesianus, <i>poet. f.</i>

A.D

- 286 The empire attacked by the northern nations. Carausius usurps the government of Britain, and reigns seven years.
- 290 The Gregorian and Hermogenian codes published.
- 292 Partition of the empire by Diocletian between two emperors and two Caesars.
- 295 ¶ Pope Marcellinus.
- Alexandria in Egypt taken by Diocletian.
- 302 The tenth persecution of the Christians.
- 304 ¶ Pope Marcellus.
Resignation of Diocletian and Maximian.
GALERIUS and CONSTANTIUS, emperors of Rome.
- 305 MAXIMINUS, emperor of Rome.
- 306 CONSTANTINE THE GREAT, emperor of Rome,—stops the persecution of the Christians.
- 310 ¶ Pope Eusebius.
- ¶ Pope Melchiades.
- 313 [Edict of Milan published by Constantine—Christianity tolerated through the empire.]
- 314 ¶ Pope Sylvester.
- 325 Constantine abolishes the combats of gladiators.
Constantine assembles the first general council at Nice, where the doctrines of Arius are condemned.
- 326 St. Athanasius, bishop of Alexandria, introduces Monachism in the Roman empire.
- 329 Constantine removes the seat of empire to Constantinople.
- 336 ¶ Pope Marcus.
- 337 ¶ Pope Julius I.
Death of Constantine.—The empire divided among his three sons.
CONSTANTINE II. CONSTANS, and CONSTANTIUS, emperors of Rome.
[Constans murdered—Magnentius assumes the purple.]
- 352 ¶ Pope Liberius.
- 356 ¶ Pope Felix I.
- 357 The Germans defeated by Julian at Strassburg.
- 358 ¶ Pope Felix II.
- 359 [Council of Rimini held.]
- 361 JULIAN, emperor of Rome—abjures Christianity, and is elected Pontifex Maximus.
Julian attempts fruitlessly to rebuild the temple of Jerusalem.
- 363 JOVIAN, emperor of Rome.
- 364 VALENTINIAN, emperor of the West.—
VALENS, emperor of the East.
- 366 ¶ Pope Damasus.
- 367 GRATIAN, emperor of the West.
- 375 VALENTINIAN II. emperor of the West.
- 376 Valens allows the Goths to settle in Thrace.
- 378 The Goths advance to the gates of Constantinople.—Death of Valens.
THEODOSIUS THE GREAT, emperor of the East.
- 285 Arnobius, *f.*
- 289 Gregory, Hermogenes, *f.*
- 291 Aelius Spartianus, *hist. f.*
- Julius Capitolinus, *his. f.*
- Vul. Gallicanus, *hist. f.*
- Trebellius Pollio, *hist. f.*
- Aelius Lampridius, *his. f.*
- Hierocles, *poet. f.*
- 303 Fl. Vopiscus, *hist. f.*
- Steph. Byzantinus, *his. f.*
- Alciphron, *rhot. f.*
- 311 Lactantius, *f.*
- Ossian, *poet. f.*
- 336 Arius, *pres. d.*
- Strobaeus, *philol. f.*
- Eusebius, *hist. f.*
- Donatus, *f.*
- Eutropius, *hist. f.*
- Libanius, *soph. f.*
- Julian, *phil. f.*
- Iamblichus, *phil. d.*
- Aurel. Victor, *f.*
- Vegitius, *hist. f.*
- 371 St. Athanasius, *d.*
- 372 Eunapius, *f.*
- R. Festus Avenius, *f.*
- Pappus, *math. f.*
- 379 St. Basil, *d.*

A.D.		
381	Second general council held at Constantinople.	380 Ammian. Marcel. <i>d</i>
383	The Huns overrun Mesopotamia,—are defeated by the Goths.	Prudentius, <i>poet, f.</i>
384	Symmachus pleads the cause of Paganism against St. Ambrose in the senate.	
385	¶ Pope Symmachus.	389 Gregory Naz. <i>d.</i>
392	THEODOSIUS, emperor of the West and East.	392 Ausonius, <i>poet, d.</i>
395	ARCADIUS, emperor of the East, and HONORIUS of the West.	
	The Huns invade the eastern provinces.	
397	St. Chrysostom chosen patriarch of Constantinople.	397 St. Ambrose, <i>d.</i>
399	¶ Pope Anastasius.	399 Hesychius, <i>f.</i>
—	Gainus the Goth obtains honours from Arcadius.	Claudian, <i>poet, f.</i>
400	Alaric the Goth ravages Italy.	Heliodorus, <i>hist. æth. f</i>
401	¶ Pope Innocent I.	
403	Stilicho, general of Honorius, defeats Alaric near Pollentia.	Longus, <i>f.</i>
404	FERGUS I., king of Scotland, supposed to have begun his reign.	
406	The Vandals, Alans, &c. invade France and Spain.	407 St. Chrysostom, <i>d.</i>
408	THEODOSIUS II. emperor of the East.	Servius, <i>com. f.</i>
410	Rome sacked and burnt by Alaric—Death of Alaric.	Orosius, <i>hist. f.</i>
411	The Vandals settled in Spain.	
416	The secular games celebrated at Rome.	416 Macrobius, <i>philol. d.</i>
—	The Pelagian heresy condemned by the bishops of Africa.	
417	¶ Pope Zozimus.	
418	¶ Pope Boniface I.	
420	Pharamond first king of the Franks supposed to have begun his reign.	420 St. Jerome, <i>d.</i>
421	¶ Pope Calixtus.	Sulpitius Severus, <i>d.</i>
424	VALENTINIAN III. emperor of the West.	
426	The Romans withdraw finally from Britain.	426 Zozimus, <i>hist. f.</i>
428	Ætius, the Roman general, defeats the Franks and Goths.	430 St. Augustine, <i>d.</i>
431	The third general council held at Ephesus.	Olympiodorus, <i>hist. f.</i>
432	¶ Pope Sixtus III.	Pelagius, <i>her. d.</i>
435	The Theodosian code published.	
439	Genseric the Vandal invades and plunders Italy.	
—	Eudocia the empress, wife of Theodosius, retires to Jerusalem.	
	Carthage taken by the Vandals.—Kingdom of the Vandals in Africa	
440	¶ Pope Leo the Great.	
442	Theodosius forced to make a disgraceful peace with Attila the Hun.	
—	Attila causes his brother Bleda to be murdered.	
445	The Britons in vain solicit the Romans to assist them against the Picts and Scots.	444 St. Cyril, <i>d.</i>
—	Attila the Hun overruns Illyrium, Thrace, Dacia, Mœsia, and Sythia.	
448	The Romans engage to pay a heavy tribute of gold to Attila	
449	Merovæus, king of the Franks.	Eutyches, <i>f.</i>

A.D.

- 450 MARCIAN, emperor of the East. 450 Sozomon, *hist. a.*
 — Attila ravages Germany and France.
 451 Theodoric king of the Visigoths killed in battle.
 — The Huns defeated by Ætius.
 — The Saxons arrive in Britain under Hengist and Horsa.
 — The fourth general council held at Chalcedon.
 452 Foundation of the city of Venice.
 455 PETRONIUS MAXIMUS, emperor of the West.
 — AVITUS, emperor of the West.
 — Rome taken and plundered by Genseric the Vandal.
 456 Childeric, king of the Franks.
 457 LEO THE GREAT, emperor of the East.
 — MAJORIANUS, emperor of the West.
 461 SEVERUS, emperor of the West, raised by Ricimer.
 ¶ Pope Hilarius. 464 Victorius, of Aquitany
 467 ANTHIMIUS, emperor of the West.
 468 Euric, king of the Visigoths drives the Romans out of Spain. 466 Prosper *d.*
 ¶ Pope Simplicius.
 470 Ælla the Saxon takes possession of the kingdom of Sussex.
 471 Ælla defeats all the British Princes.
 472 Great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, seen from Constantinople.
 — OLYBIUS, emperor of the West.
 473 GLYCERIOUS, emperor of the West, degraded and stripped by
 474 JULIUS NEPOS, emperor of the West.
 — ZENO Emperor of the East
 475 AUGUSTULUS ROMULUS Emperor of the West, raised by his father Orestes, general to Nepos.
 476 Orestes put to death by Odoacer king of the Heruli. 476 Hierocles *f.*
 — Rome taken by Odoacer, now king of Italy. Q. Calaber, *poet, f.*
 — EXTINCTION OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE of the Romans, 507 years from the battle of Actium, and 1224 from the building of Rome.
 481 Clovis king of the Franks.
 — Zeno makes Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, his general, and creates him consul. 482 Sidonius Apollinaris *d.*
 483 ¶ Pope Felix III. Simplicius, *phil. f.*
 485 Battle of Soissons gained by Clovis.
 488 Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, entirely defeats Odoacer, and is acknowledged king of Italy by the emperor Zeno.
 490 The Burgundians, under Gondebald, ravage Italy.
 — Ireland called the Isle of Saints, famous for its schools.
 491 ANASTASIUS, emperor of the East. 491 St. Patrick *d.*
 493 Odoacer put to death by Theodoric. 492 Gennadius *d.*
 496 ¶ Pope Anastasius II. Malchus, *soph. f.*
 497 Clovis and the Franks converted to Christianity.
 498 ¶ Pope Symmachus.

A D.	409 Alliance between Clovis and Theodoric the Great.	501 Zozimus, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Gondebald, the Burgundian, becomes tributary to Clovis.	
501	The Burgundian laws published by Gondebald.	Steph. Byzantinus, <i>f.</i>
502	Cabades, king of Persia, ravages part of the Eastern empire.	
501	The Eastern empire makes peace with Cabades.	Proclus, <i>phil. f.</i>
507	Clovis defeats Alaric the Visigoth, and receives a congratulatory embassy, with a diadem, from Anastasius.	
508	Theodoric the Great defeats Clovis in the battle of Arles, and then makes peace with him.	Priscian <i>f.</i> Hesychius, <i>hist. f.</i>
510	Clovis makes Paris the capital of the kingdom of the Franks.	
511	Death of Clovis.—Division of his kingdom among his four sons.	Boethius, <i>phil. d.</i>
—	<i>Childebert, Thierry, Clotaire, and Clodomir, kings of the Franks.</i>	
512	The Heruli allowed by Anastasius to settle in Thrace.	529 Fulgentius <i>d.</i>
514	† Pope Hormisdas.	
515	Arthur, king of the Britons, supposed to have begun his reign.	Tribonianus <i>f.</i>
516	The computation of time by the Christian era introduced by Dionysius the monk.	
517	The Getæ ravage Illyrium, Macedonia, and Epirus.	Achilles Tatrus, <i>hist. f.</i>
518	JUSTIN I., emperor of the East, raised from obscurity.	
519	Justin restores the orthodox bishops, and condemns the Eutychians.	Procopius, <i>hist. f.</i> Maecellinus, <i>hist. f.</i>
—	Cabades, king of Persia, proposes that Justin should adopt his son Cosroes, and makes war on a refusal.	
523	† Pope John I.	Jo. Philoponus <i>f.</i>
525	The Arian bishops deposed by Justin,—highly resented by Theodoric.	
—	Antioch and many other cities almost destroyed by an earthquake, but rebuilt by Justin.—He adopts his nephew Justinian.	Justinian congratulates Cosroes on succeeding to the throne of Persia, and concludes a perpetual peace with him.
526	Theodoric puts to death Boethius and Symmachus.	
—	† Pope Felix IV.	Great insurrection at Constantinople quelled with prodigious slaughter by Belisarius.
527	JUSTINIAN I., emperor of the East.	
529	Belisarius, general of Justinian, defeats the Persians.	Athalatic, king of the Ostrogoths dying, is succeeded by his mother Amalasonta.
—	The books of the civil law published by Justinian.	
530	† Pope Boniface II.	† Theodober, king of Metz.
32	Justinian congratulates Cosroes on succeeding to the throne of Persia, and concludes a perpetual peace with him.	
—	Great insurrection at Constantinople quelled with prodigious slaughter by Belisarius.	Belisarius defeats Gelimer and the Vandals in Africa.
533	Athalatic, king of the Ostrogoths dying, is succeeded by his mother Amalasonta.	
—	† Pope John II.	
534	Theodober, king of Metz.	
—	Belisarius defeats Gelimer and the Vandals in Africa.	

A. D.	
535 ¶ Pope Agapetus.	
536 ¶ Pope Sylvester.	
537 Belisarius subdues the Ostrogoths in Italy, and takes Rome.	
538 ¶ Pope Vigilius.	
540 Belisarius refuses to accept the crown of Italy.	
543 Totila the Goth recovers Italy from the Romans.	
547 [Ida, the Saxon, lands at Flamborough, subdues the country from the Humber to the Forth, and founds the Northumbrian kingdom.]	Simplicius, <i>phil. f.</i>
— Totila takes and plunders Rome.	
548 <i>Theodebald</i> , king of Metz.	
549 Rome retaken by Belisarius.	
550 Commencement of the kingdom of Poland under Lechus.	Stobæus <i>f.</i>
— Rome recovered by Totila.	
551 The manufacture of silk introduced into Europe.	
553 Totila defeated by Narses the eunuch, and put to death.	552 Jornandes, <i>hist. d.</i>
555 ¶ Pope Pelagius I.	
558 The Huns, breaking into Thrace, are defeated by Belisarius.	
559 Belisarius degraded, and ungratefully used by Justinian.	
— <i>Clotaire</i> sole king of France.	
560 ¶ Pope John III.	
— Belisarius restored to his honours and command.	
562 <i>Caribert</i> , <i>Guntran</i> , <i>Sigebert</i> , and <i>Chilperic</i> , kings of France.	562 Cassiodorus, <i>hist. d.</i>
565 JUSTIN II. emperor of the East.	565 Belisarius <i>d.</i>
— [The Picts converted to Christianity by St. Columba.]	
566 Narses, recalled from Italy, invites the Lombards to take possession of the country.	Agathinus, <i>hist. f.</i>
568 Italy conquered by the Lombards.	
571 Birth of Mahomet.	570 Gildas, <i>hist. d.</i>
574 ¶ Pope Benedict I.	
578 TIBERIUS II., emperor of the East.	
— ¶ Pope Pelagius II.	
580 The Latin tongue ceases to be spoken in Italy about this time.	
582 MAURICE, emperor of the East.	
584 <i>Clotaire II.</i> , king of Soissons.	
590 Antioch again destroyed, with 30,000 inhabitants, by an earthquake.	Evagrius, <i>hist. f.</i>
— ¶ Pope Gregory the Great.	
596 <i>Thierry II.</i> and <i>Theodobert II.</i> kings of Paris and Austrasia.	595 Gregory of Tours, <i>hist. d.</i>
596 Augustine the monk converts the Saxons to Christianity.	
602 PHOCAS, emperor of the East, acknowledges the supremacy of the Popes.	
604 ¶ Pope Sabinianus.	
607 ¶ Pope Boniface III.	605 Augustine, <i>monk. d.</i>
— The Pantheon at Rome dedicated to God, the Virgin, and the Saints.	
608 ¶ Pope Boniface IV.	
609 The Jews of Antioch massacre the Christians.	
611 HERACLIUS, emperor of the East.	
613 The French Maires du Palais first introduced by Clotaire as Regents.	

A.D.		
614	<i>Clotaire II.</i> sole king of France.	<i>Secundus, hist. f.</i>
--	Queen Brunehilda, accused of numberless crimes, is put to death by <i>Clotaire II.</i>	
615	¶ Pope Deus-dedit.	
616	Jerusalem taken by the Persians under Cosroes II.	
618	¶ Pope Boniface V.	
622	Era of the Hegyra, or flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina.	
625	¶ Pope Honorius I.	
--	The Persians, under Cosroes II. with the Huns, Abari, and Sclavonians, besiege Constantinople.	
628	<i>Dagobert</i> and <i>Charibert</i> , kings of France.	
632	Death of Mahomet.—Abubeker succeeds him as caliph of the Saracens.	<i>Mahomet, prophet, d.</i>
638	Abubeker dies, and is succeeded by Omar in the caliphate.	
636	Jerusalem taken by Omar and the Saracens, who keep possession of it 163 years.	636 <i>Isodorus Hisp. d.</i>
638	<i>Sigebert II.</i> and <i>Clovis II.</i> kings of France.	
640	¶ Pope Severinus.	
--	¶ Pope John IV.	
--	The library of Alexandria, founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, is burnt by the Saracens.	
641	CONSTANTINE, emperor of the East, for a few months, poisoned by his stepmother.	
--	HERACLIONAS and TIBERIUS III. emperors of the East.	
642	CONSTANS, son of Constantine, emperor of the East.	641 <i>George Pisides, d.</i>
--	¶ Pope Theodorus.	
645	Otman succeeds Omar in the caliphate.	
648	Cyprus taken by the Saracens under Mawia.	
649	¶ Pope Martin I.	
653	The Saracens takes Rhodes, and destroy the Colossus.	
654	<i>Childeic II.</i> king of Austrasia.	
--	¶ Pope Eugenius I.	
655	Ali, caliph of Arabia.—Mawia caliph of Egypt.	<i>Hldefonsus, hist. f.</i>
657	¶ Pope Vitalianus.	
658	The Saracens obtain peace of the emperor Constans, and agree to pay a yearly tribute.	
668	CONSTANTIUS V. (Pogonatus) emperor of the East.	
669	Sicily ravaged by the Saracens.	
672	¶ Pope Adeodatus.	
--	The Saracens ineffectually besiege Constantinople.—Their fleet destroyed by the Greek fire used by Callinicus.	<i>Paulus Egineta, med. j</i> <i>Callinicus, math. f.</i>
675	The Saracens attempt to land in Spain, but are repulsed by Wamba king of the Visigoths.	
678	¶ Pope Donus.	
679	<i>Thierry IV.</i> , king of all France.	
--	¶ Pope Agatho.	
680	The sixth general or œcumenical council of Constantinople.	
682	¶ Pope Leo II.	<i>Adamnanus Scotus, hist. f.</i>
684	¶ Pope Benedict II.	
685	¶ Pope John V.	
--	JUSTINIAN II. emperor of the East.	

- A.D.
 685 [Ægfrid the Saxon penetrates northward to Angus, but is slain by Breda the Pictish king.]
 — The Britons, totally subdued by the Saxons, retreat into Wales and Cornwall.
 686 ¶ Pope Conon.
 — Ceadwalla, king of Wessex, subdues Sussex and Kent.
 687 Pope Sergius.
 690 Pepin Heristel, *Maire du Palais*, defeats Thierry, and acquires the chief power in France.
 692 Clovis III., king of France.
 694 Justinian II. dethroned, mutilated, and banished by Leontius.
 695 Childebert III. king of France.
 — LEONTIUS, emperor of the East,—dethroned and mutilated by
 697 APSIMAR or TIBERIUS, emperor of the East.
 699 The Saracens defeated by John the patrician.
 700 The Saracens again defeated with great slaughter by Heraclius, brother of Tiberius.
 701 ¶ Pope John VI.
 704 Justinian II. escapes from prison, defeats Tiberius, and is restored to the throne.
 707 Justinian II. defeated by the Bulgarians.
 708 ¶ Pope Sisinnus.
 — ¶ Pope Constantine.
 711 PHILIPPICUS BARDANES, emperor of the East.
 — Dagobert III. king of France.
 713 ANASTATIUS II., emperor of the East.
 — Spain conquered by the Saracens under Aduca, the general of the Caliph Walid.
 714 ¶ Pope Gregory II.
 — THEODOSIUS emperor of the East.
 — Charles Martel, *Maire du Palais*, governs all France for twenty-six years.
 716 Childeric II. king of France.
 — LEO (the Isaurian) emperor of the East.
 720 Omar II. besieges Constantinople without success.
 — Thierry IV. king of France.
 726 Leo forbids the worship of images, which occasions a great rebellion of his subjects, the pope defending the practice.
 728 Leo orders pope Gregory to be seized, and sent to Constantinople; but the order is frustrated, and Leo confiscates the imperial domains of Sicily and Calabria.
 729 The Saracens ravage Gallia Narbonnensis.
 731 ¶ Pope Gregory III.
 732 Charles Martel defeats the Saracens between Tours and Poitiers.
 736 Leo persecutes the monks.
 737 Death of Pelagius, who preserved the Christian monarchy in Asturia.
 740 The duchy of Spoleto seized by the Normans.
 — Recovered by the pope.
 741 ¶ Pope Zachary.

Muça the Saracen, &c.

735 Bede, *hist.* 1

A.D.		
742	<i>Childeric III. king of France.</i>	Fiedegaire, <i>M. t. f</i>
—	CONSTANTINE (Copronymus) emperor of the East.—Enemy to images and saint-worship.	
743	Constantine defeats and puts to death Artabazdus, who had seized Constantinople.	
745	Constantine destroys the fleet of the Saracens.	
749	The race of the Abassidæ become caliphs of the Saracens.	
751	<i>Pepin (le Bref) king of France. founder of the second or Carolingian race</i>	
752	† Pope Stephen II.	
753	Astolphus, king of the Lombards, erects the dukedom of Ravenna, and claims from the pope the dukedom of Rome.	
754	Pope Stephen requests the assistance of Pepin against the Lombards.	
—	Pepin invades Italy, and strips Astolphus of his new possessions, conferring them on the pope as a temporal sovereignty.	
—	Almanzor, caliph of the Saracens, a great encourager of learning.	
756	Desiderius or Dulier proclaimed king of the Lombards, with the pope's consent.	
—	Abdalrahman I. takes the title of king of Cordova, and is the founder of the splendid dominion of the Moors in Spain.	
757	† Pope Paul I. renews the alliance with Desiderius.	
759	† Pope Stephen III. quarrels with Desiderius.	
762	Almanzor builds Bagdat and makes it the seat of the empire of the caliphs.	763 Jo. Damascenus, <i>d.</i>
767	The Turks ravage Asia Minor.	
768	<i>Charles (the Great) and Carloman kings of France.</i>	
—	† Pope Stephen IV.	
770	Constantine dissolves the monasteries in the East.	
772	<i>Charlemagne sole monarch of France.</i>	
—	Charlemagne makes war against the Saxons.	
—	† Pope Adrian I.	
774	Charlemagne defeats Desiderius, and puts an end to the kingdom of the Lombards, which had subsisted 266 years.	
775	LEO IV. emperor of the East.	
778	Battle of Roncivallès between the Christians and Moors in Spain, where Rolando is killed.	
779	Charlemagne conquers Navarre and Sardinia.	
781	CONSTANTINE (Porphyrogenitus) emperor of the East.	
—	Irene, empress, regent in her son's minority, keeps him in entire subjection.	
—	Irene re-establishes the worship of images.	
785	Charlemagne subdues the Saxons.	
—	Haroun Alraschid, caliph of the Saracens.	
—	Haroun Alraschid invades and ravages a part of the empire.	
786	Constantine assumes the government of the empire, and imprisons his mother.	
787	The Danes for the first time land in England.	

A D.	
787	The seventh general council, or second of Nice, is held.
788	Irene puts to death her son Constantine, and is proclaimed sole empress.
793	Irene proposes to marry Charlemagne, which being disproved of by her subjects, she is dethroned, and confined to a monastery.
--	NICEPHORUS, emperor of the East.
794	Charlemagne defeats and utterly extirpates the Huns.
795	¶ Pope Leo III.
797	The Saracens ravage Cappadocia, Cyprus, Rhodes, &c.
--	Nicephorus associates his son Saturacius in the empire.
800	NEW EMPIRE OF THE WEST.—Charlemagne crowned emperor at Rome.
807	Haroun Alraschid courts the alliance of Charlemagne.
811	MICHAEL, (Curopalates) emperor of the East.
813	LEO, (the Armenian) emperor of the East.
--	Almamon, caliph of the Saracens, a great encourager of learning.
814	Lewis (le Débonnaire) emperor and king of France.
816	The eastern empire ravaged by earthquakes, famine, conflagrations, &c.
--	¶ Pope Stephen V.
817	¶ Pope Pascal I.
--	Lewis (le Débonnaire) divides the empire among his sons.
821	MICHAEL (Balbus or the Stammerer) emperor of the East.
824	¶ Pope Eugene II.
827	Egbert unites the kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy.—Beginning of the kingdom of England.
--	¶ Pope Valentine.
828	¶ Pope Gregory IV.
829	THEOPHILUS, emperor of the East.
838	Æthelwulf, king of England.
--	The Scots under Kenneth entirely subdue the Picts.
840	LOTHARIUS, emperor of Germany.
--	Charles (the Bald) king of France.
841	Lotharius defeated by his two brothers in the battle of Fontenai, and deposed.
842	LEWIS (of Bavaria) Emperor of Germany.
--	MICHAEL III. emperor of the east.
843	KENNETH MACALPIN, king of Scots, subdues the Pictish kingdom, and unites it to the Scottish.
--	The Normans plunder the city of Rouen.
844	¶ Pope Sergius III.
845	The Normans plunder Hamburg, and penetrate into Germany.
847	¶ Pope Leo IV.
848	The Venetian fleet destroyed by the Saracens.
851	¶ Pope Joan supposed to have filled the papal chair for two years.

Geo. Syncellus, *f.*801 Paul Diaconus, *d.*
Mesué Arab. *ind. f.*
804 Alcuin, *hist. d.*814 Charlemagne, *d.*Albumazar, *ast. f.*Eginhart, *hist. d.*

A.D.		
851	BASILIIUS associated emperor of the East. LEWIS II. emperor of Germany.	
857	Æthelbald and Æthelbert kings of England.	857 Photius Patr. d.
858	† Pope Nicholas I.	
856	Æthelred king of England.	
857	The Danes ravage England	
—	Basilius sole emperor of the East.	
—	† Pope Adrian II.	
—	Photius, patriarch of Constantinople, excommunicates pope Adrian.	870 Godescalcus, d.
872	Alfred (the Great) king of England.	
—	† Pope John VIII.	874 Ado, hist. d.
875	CHARLES (the Bald) emperor of Germany.	
—	Harold Harfager unites the provinces of Norway, conquers Orkney, Shetland, and the Hebrides, and appoints earls to govern them.	
877	LEWIS (the Stammerer) emperor of Germany, and king of France.	878 Hubba, Danes, d.
879	Lewis III. and Carloman , kings of France.	
—	The kingdom of Arles begins.	
880	CHARLES (the Gross) emperor of Germany and king of France.	
—	Ravages of the Normans in France.	
882	† Pope Marinus.	882 Hincmarus, d.
884	† Pope Adrian III.	883 Scotas Erigena, d.
886	LEO (the Philosopher) emperor of the East.	Nicetas, hist. f.
—	The University of Oxford founded by Alfred.	Alfred, f.
887	ARNOLD , emperor of Germany.	
—	The Normans besiege Paris, which is gallantly defended by bishop Goselin and count Eudes.	
888	Eudes or Odo , king of France.	
890	Alfred the Great composes his code of laws, and divides England into counties, hundreds, and tithings.	
891	† Pope Formosus.	
896	† Pope Stephen VII.	
897	† Pope John IX.	
898	Charles III. (the Simple) king of France.	
899	† Pope Benedict IV.	
—	Lewis IV. emperor of Germany.	
901	Edward (the Elder) succeeds Alfred as king of England.	
904	† Pope Leo V.	
905	† Pope Sergius III.	
911	CONRAD I. emperor of Germany.	
—	CONSTANTINE IX. emperor of the East.	
912	The Normans are established in Normandy under Rollo.	
913	† Pope Anastasius.	
914	† Pope Landon.	
915	CONSTANTINE and ROMANUS , emperors of the East.	
—	† Pope John X.	
—	The university of Cambridge founded by Edward the Elder.	
920	HENRY (the Fowler) emperor of Germany.	
924	Rodolph king of France.	
925	Æthelstan king of England.	
928	† Pope Leo VI.	

A.D.	
929 ¶ Pope Stephen VIII.	
931 ¶ Pope John XI.	
— [Rise of the republic of Pisa.]	
— [City of Geneva overrun by the Saracens.]	
936 Otto (the Great) emperor of Germany.	Azophi, <i>ar. ast. f.</i>
— ¶ Pope Leo VII.	
— Louis IV. (<i>d'Outremer</i>) king of France.	
939 ¶ Pope Stephen IX.	
940 Howel-Dha, king of Wales, an eminent law-giver.	
941 Edmund I. king of England.	942 Eudes de Cluai, <i>l.</i>
943 ¶ Pope Marinus XIII.	
946 ¶ Pope Agapet.	
948 Ædred king of England.	
951 Lotharius king of France.	Alfarabius, <i>ar. ast. f.</i>
955 Ædwy king of England.	
956 ¶ Pope John XII.	
959 ROMANUS II. emperor of the East.	
— Ædgar king of England.	
963 ¶ Pope Leo VIII.	
— NICEPHORUS PHOCUS, emperor of the East.	
964 Otho the Great conquers Italy.	
965 ¶ Pope John XIII.	
967 Antioch recovered from the Saracens by Nicephorus.	
969 JOHN ZEMISSES, emperor of the East.	970 Luitprand, <i>h. st. d.</i>
972 ¶ Pope Benedict VI.	
973 Otho II. emperor of Germany.	
974 ¶ Pope Boniface VII.	
975 [KENNET III. annexes the Britons of Strathclyd to the Scottish kingdom.]	
— ¶ Pope Benedict VII.	
— BASILIUS and CONSTANTINE X. emperors of the East.	
976 Edward II. king of England.	
978 Æthelred II. king of England.	
983 Otho III. emperor of Germany.	
984 ¶ Pope John XIV.	
986 ¶ Pope John XV.	
— Lewis V. (<i>le Fainéant</i>) king of France.	
987 Hugh Capet, king of France, founder of the third race of the French kings.	
991 The Arabic numeral cyphers first introduced into Europe.	
996 Robert (<i>the Wise</i>) king of France.	
— ¶ Pope Gregory V.	
999 ¶ Pope Sylvester II.	
1002 HENRY II. emperor of Germany.	
— Great massacre of the Danes by Ethelred king of England.	
1003 ¶ Pope John XVI.	
— ¶ Pope John XVII.	
1004 ¶ Pope John XVIII.	
1005 Churches first built in the Gothic style.	
1009 ¶ Pope Sergius IV.	1009 Amoin, <i>hist. d.</i>
1012 ¶ Pope Benedict VIII.	1010 Rhazes, <i>ar. phil. d.</i>
1013 The Danes, under Sucno, get possession of England.	

A.D.	
1015	The Manichean doctrines prevalent in France and Italy.
1016	Edmund II. (Ironside) king of England.
—	Six battles fought with the Danes under Canute in England.
1017	Canute the Dane (the Great) king of England.
1018	The Normans invade Italy.
1024	¶ Pope John XIX. or XX.
—	Conrad II. (the Salic) emperor of Germany.
1025	Musical characters invented by Guido Arctino.
1028	ROMANUS ARGYRUS , emperor of the East.
1031	<i>Henry I. king of France.</i>
1033	¶ Pope Benedict IX.
1034	MICHAEL IV. emperor of the East.
1036	Harold (Harefoot) king of England.
1039	HENRY III. emperor of Germany.
—	Canute II. or Hardicanute , king of England.
1040	MACBETH usurps the throne of Scotland by the murder of Duncan.
1041	Edward III. (the Confessor) king of England, restores the Saxon line.
—	MICHAEL (Calaphates) emperor of the East.
1042	CONSTANTINE (Monomachus) emperor of the East.
1043	The Turks, under Tangrolipix, subdue Persia.
1045	¶ Pope Gregory VI.
1046	¶ Pope Clement II.
1048	¶ Pope Damasus II.
1049	¶ Pope Leo IX. the first pope who maintained a regular army.
1054	THEODORA , empress of the East.
—	Pope Leo IX. taken prisoner by the Normans.
1055	¶ Pope Victor II.
—	The Turks take Bagdat, and overturn the empire of the caliphs.
1056	HENRY IV. emperor of Germany.
1057	MALCOLM III. (Canmore) king of Scotland.
—	ISAAC (Comnenus) emperor of the East.
—	¶ Pope Stephen X.
1058	¶ Pope Nicholas II.
—	The Saracens driven out of Sicily by Robert Guiscard the Norman.
1059	CONSTANTINE XII. (Ducas) emperor of the East.
1060	<i>Philip I. king of France.</i>
1061	¶ Pope Alexander II.
—	Rise of the faction of the Guelphs and Ghibellines.
—	Henry IV. of Germany on his knees asks pardon of the pope.
1065	The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
1066	Harold II. king of England reigned nine months.
—	William (the Conqueror) king of England.
1068	ROMANUS DIOGENES , emperor of the East.

Guido Arctino, monk, f.

1050 Avicenna, Arab. phys. d.

Smeaton, f.

A.D.		
1068	Edgar Atheling seeks refuge in Scotland.	
—	Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, married to Malcolm king of Scotland.	
1070	The feudal law introduced into England.	
1071	MICHAEL DUCAS, emperor of the East.	
1073	¶ Pope Gregory VII.	
1076	The emperor Henry IV. excommunicated and deposed by the pope.	
1078	NICEPHORUS (Boton) emperor of the East.	Will. of Spire, <i>mat. f.</i>
1079	Doomsday-book begun by William the Conqueror.	
1081	ALEXIUS I. (Comnenus) emperor of the East.	
—	Henry IV. emperor besieges Rome.	1088 Berenger, <i>part of Provence, d.</i>
1084	— — — — — recrowned emperor of Germany.	1089 Abpb. Lanfranc <i>d.</i>
1086	¶ Pope Victor III.	
1087	¶ Pope Urban II.	
—	William II. (Rufus) king of England.	
1093	St. Margaret queen of Scotland died.	
—	DONALD BANE king of Scotland.	
1095	DUNCAN II. king of Scotland.	
—	The first crusade to the Holy Land.—Peter the Hermit.	
1097	[Newcastle on Tyne built by Malcolm Canmore.]	
1098	The crusaders take Antioch.	
—	Magnus Barefoot, king of Norway, reduces Orkney, Shetland, and the Hebrides, to complete subjection to his crown.	
—	EDGAR king of Scotland.	
1099	Jerusalem taken by Godfrey of Boulogne.—The knights of St. John instituted.	
—	¶ Pope Pascal II.	1105 Raymond Count de Thoulouse <i>d.</i>
1100	Henry I. (Beauclerc) king of England.	
1102	Guiscard of Normandy takes the title of king of Naples.	1113 Siebert, <i>hist. d</i> Anna Comnena, <i>hist. f.</i>
1104	Baldwin king of Jerusalem takes Ptolemais.	
1106	HENRY V. emperor of Germany.	
1107	ALEXANDER I. king of Scotland.	
1108	Louis VI. (<i>le Gros</i>) King of France.	
1118	¶ Pope Gelasius II.	
—	The order of knights templars instituted.	
—	JOHN (Comnenus) emperor of the East.	
1119	¶ Pope Calixtus II.	
1124	DAVID I. king of Scotland.	
—	¶ Pope Honorius II.	
1125	Lotharius II. emperor of Germany.	
1130	¶ Pope Innocent II.	
1135	Stephen king of England.	
1137	Lewis VII. (<i>le Jeune</i>) king of France,—married to Eleanor of Guienne.	
—	The pandects of the Roman law discovered at Amalphi.	Will. of Malmshury, <i>hist. f.</i>
1138	CONRAD III. emperor of Germany.	
—	The Scots, under David I., defeated by the English in the battle of the Standard.	
1139	Alphonso I. king of Portugal rescues that kingdom from the Saracens.	1143 Peter Abelard <i>d.</i>
1140	The canon law first introduced into England.	
1141	Stephen king of England taken prisoner in the battle of Lincoln by the troops of Matilda.	
1143	— — — — — recovers his kingdom.	

A.D.	
1143 ¶ Pope Celestinus II.	
— MANUEL. (Comnenus) emperor of the East.	Scotl. of Monmouth <i>f.</i>
1144 ¶ Pope Lucius II.	
1145 Pope Eugene III.	
1147 The second crusade excited by St. Bernard.	
1150 The study of the civil law revived at Bologna.	
1151 The canon law is collected by Gratian, a monk of Bologna.	
1152 FREDERICK I. (Barbarossa) emperor of Germany.	Eustathius Com. on Hom. <i>f.</i>
1153 MALCOLM IV. king of Scotland.	
— ¶ Pope Anastasius IV.	
-- Treaty of Winchester,—Compromise between king Stephen and prince Henry.	
1154 Henry II. (Plantagenet) king of England.	
— ¶ Pope Adrian IV.	Peter Lombard <i>d.</i>
-- The parties of the Guelphs and Ghibellines disturb Italy.	
1157 The Bank of Venice instituted.	
1158 Interview between Henry II. and Malcolm IV. at Carlisle.	Hen. of Huntingdon <i>f.</i>
1159 ¶ Pope Alexander III.	
1160 The Albigenes maintain heretical doctrines.	
1164 Institution of the order of Teutonic knights in Germany.	Ran. de Glanville, <i>f.</i>
— T. Becket condemned by the council of Clarendon.	
1165 WILLIAM (the Lion) king of Scotland.	
1171 T. Becket murdered at Canterbury.	
1172 Conquest of Ireland by Henry II.	
1180 Philip Augustus, king of France.	
— ALEXIUS II. (Comnenus) emperor of the East.	John of Salisbury <i>d.</i>
1181 ¶ Pope Lucius III.	
1183 ANDRONICUS (Comnenus) emperor of the East.	
1185 ¶ Pope Urban III.	Will. of Newburgh <i>f.</i>
— ISAAC ANGELUS emperor of the East.	
1187 ¶ Pope Gregory VIII.	
-- The city of Jerusalem taken by Saladin.	
1188 ¶ Pope Clement III.	R. of Hoveden <i>hist. f.</i>
1189 Richard I. (Cœur de Lion) king of England.	
— The third crusade under Richard I. and Philip Augustus.	
1190 HENRY VI. emperor of Germany.	
1191 ¶ Pope Celestinus III.	
1192 Richard I. defeats Saladin in the battle of Ascalon.	Peter of Blois, <i>hist. d.</i>
— Guy of Lusignan king of Jerusalem.	Gerv. of Canterbury <i>f.</i>
1195 ALEXIUS ANGELUS (the Tyrant) emperor of the East.	Saxo Grammaticus <i>f.</i>
1198 PHILIP emperor of Germany.	
— ¶ Pope Innocent III.	
1199 John king of England.	
1202 The fourth crusade sets out from Venice.	
-- Constantinople taken by the French and Venetians.	
1203 ALEXIUS and MURZUZULPHUS emperors of the East.	
1204 BALDWIN I. emperor of Constantinople, and THEODORE I. Lascaris, emperor of Nicaea.	

A.D.	
1204	The Inquisition established by Pope Innocent III.
1206	HENRY emperor of Constantinople.
1208	OTTO IV. emperor of Germany. — London incorporated, obtains a charter for electing its mayor and magistrates.
1210	Crusade against the Albigenses, under Simon de Montfort.
1212	FREDERICK II. emperor of Germany.
1214	ALEXANDER II. king of Scotland.
1215	Magna Charta signed by king John, [19th June.]
1216	Henry III. king of England. — PETER and JOHN DUCAS emperors of the East.
1219	ROBERT emperor of the East. — Damietta taken by the Crusaders.
1223	Louis VIII. king of France.
1226	¶ Pope Honorius III. — St. Louis IX. king of France — [Institution of the orders of St. Dominic and St. Francis.]
1227	¶ Pope Gregory IX. — Gengiskan and the Tartars overrun the empire of the Saracens.
1228	BALDWIN II. French emperor of Constantinople.
1234	The Inquisition committed to the Dominican monks.
1237	Russia brought under subjection by the Tartars.
1241	¶ Pope Celestine IV.
1243	¶ Pope Innocent IV.
1248	The fifth crusade under St. Louis.
1249	ALEXANDER III. king of Scotland.
1251	CONRAD IV. emperor of Germany.
1254	¶ Pope Alexander IV. — Interregnum in the empire of Germany, from the death of Conrad IV. in 1254, to the election of Rodolph in 1273.
1255	THEODORE II. (Lascaris) emperor of Nicæa.
1258	Bagdat taken by the Tartars.—End of the empire of the Saracens.
1259	JOHN (Lascaris) emperor of Nicæa.
1260	MICHAEL (Palæologas) emperor of Nicæa. — The Flagellants preach baptism by blood.
1261	¶ Pope Urban IV. — The Greek emperors recover Constantinople from the French.
1263	The Norwegians invade Scotland, and are defeated by Alexander III. in the battle of Largs.
1264	¶ Pope Clement IV. — The deputies of boroughs first summoned to Parliament in England. — Henry III. of England taken prisoner in the battle of Lewes.
1265	Charles count of Anjou king of Sicily.
1270	Philip III. (the Bold) king of France.
1271	¶ Pope Gregory X.
1272	Edward I. (Longshanks) king of England.
	1224 Raymond Count de Thoulouse d.
	Gengiskan d.
	1259 Mat. Paris, &c. d.

A.D.	
1273	RODOLPH (of Hapsburg) emperor of Germany, first of the Austrian family.
1276	† Pope Innocent V.
--	† Pope Adrian V.
--	† Pope John XXI.
1277	† Pope Nicholas III.
1281	† Pope Martin IV.
1282	The Sicilian vespers, when 8000 French were massacred.
1283	ANDRONICUS I. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.
--	The conquest of Wales by Edward I.
1285	† Pope Honorius IV.
--	Philip IV. (<i>the Fair</i>) king of France.
1286	MARGARET (of Norway) queen of Scotland.
1288	† Pope Nicholas IV.
1290	Interregnum in Scotland for two years.—Competition between Bruce and Balliol for the crown, decided by Edward I.
1291	Ptolemais taken by the Turks.—End of the crusades.
1292	JOHN BALLIOL king of Scotland.
--	ADOLPHUS (of Nassau) emperor of Germany.
--	† Pope Celestine V.
1293	From this year there is a regular succession of English parliaments.
--	Jubilee first celebrated at Rome.
1294	† Pope Boniface VIII.
1295	MICHAEL ANDRONICUS emperor of the East.
1296	Interregnum in Scotland for eight years.—Sir William Wallace nobly supports the liberty of his country, defeats the English at Stirling, and drives them out of the kingdom.
1298	Wallace chosen regent of Scotland,—defeated at Falkirk.
--	ALBERT I. (of Austria) emperor of Germany.
--	The present Turkish empire begins under Ottoman in Bithynia.
1299	Ottoman or Othoman first Sultan and founder of the Turkish empire.
1301	Quarrel between Philip the Fair and Pope Boniface VIII.
1302	Comyn and Fraser defeat the English three in one day.
--	The mariner's compass said to be discovered at Naples.
1301	Wallace betrayed, delivered up, and put to death by Edward I.
1305	† Pope Clement V.
1306	ROBERT I. (Bruce) king of Scotland.
1397	The establishment of the Swiss republics.
--	Edward II. king of England.
1308	HENRY VII. emperor of Germany.
--	The seat of the Popes transferred to Avignon for seventy years.
1310	Rhodes taken by the knights of St. John of Jerusalem.
1311	Pierce Gaveston, favourite of Edward II., put to death.
1274	St. T. Aquinas <i>d.</i>
1280	Albertus Mag. <i>phil. d.</i>
1284	Roger Bacon, <i>phil. d.</i>
	Cimabue, <i>painter d.</i>
	Joh. Deins Scotus <i>d.</i>
	1308 Jo. Fordun, <i>hist. d.</i>

A.D.	
1312	The knights templars suppressed by Philip the Fair.
1314	The Scots under Robert Bruce defeat the English under Edward II. at Bannockburn.
—	LEWIS V. (of Bavaria) emperor of Germany.
—	Lewis X. (<i>Hutín</i>) king of France.
1315	John king of France.
1316	¶ Pope John XXII.
—	Philip V. (<i>the Long</i>) king of France.
1320	ANDRONICUS II. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.
1321	Charles IV. (<i>the Fair</i>) king of France.
1327	EDWARD III. king of England.
1328	Philip VI. (<i>of Valois</i>) king of France.
—	[~] Orkhanes, or Urtchan, emperor of the Turks.]
1329	DAVID II. king of Scotland. — Randolph, earl of Murray, regent.
1331	The Teutonic knights settle in Prussia.
1332	Edward Baliol, assisted by Edward III. is crowned at Scone king of Scots, but is soon driven out of the kingdom.
1333	Casimir III. (<i>the Great</i>) king of Poland.
1334	¶ Pope Benedict XII.
1340	Gunpowder invented by Swartz, a monk of Cologne.
—	Oil painting invented by John Van Eyk.
1341	JOHN V. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.
—	John Cantacuzenos, his governor, usurps the throne.
1342	¶ Pope Clement VI.
1346	Battle of Cressy, won by Edward III. and the Black Prince over the French.
—	Battle of Durham, in which David II. of Scotland is taken prisoner.
1347	CHARLES IV. emperor of Germany.
—	Cola Rienzi assumes the government of Rome.
1350	The order of the Garter instituted by Edward III.
—	Peter (<i>the Cruel</i>) king of Castile.
1351	John II. king of France.
1352	¶ Pope Innocent VI.
—	The Turks first enter Europe.
1356	The battle of Poitiers, in which John II. king of France is taken prisoner, and afterwards brought to London.
1359	[~] Amurath I. emperor of the Turks.]
1362	¶ Pope Urban V.
—	The law-pleadings in England changed from French to English.
1364	Charles V. king of France
1370	¶ Pope Gregory XI.
—	ROBERT II. king of Scotland.
1377	The pope's return from Avignon to Rome.
—	RICHARD II. king of England.
—	Wickliffe's doctrines propagated in England.
1378	The schism of the double Popes at Rome and Avignon begins, and continues thirty-eight years.
1315	Guy Earl of Warwick, <i>d.</i>
	Rayn. Lullu, <i>phil d.</i>
	Dante Alighieri, <i>poet, d.</i>
	Castruc. Castracani, <i>d</i>
1330	Mortimer, earl of March, <i>d.</i>
1363	Edward Baliol, <i>d.</i>
1374	F. Petrarch, <i>poet, d.</i>
1376	G. Boccace, <i>poet, d</i>
	— Ed. Black Prince, <i>d.</i>

A D.		
1378	¶ Pope Urban VI. Rome.	
--	¶ Pope Clement VII. Avignon.	
1378	WENCESLAUS, emperor of Germany, deposed in 1400.	
1380	Charles VI. king of France.	Mat of Westminster <i>hist d.</i>
--	Tamerlane invades and subdues Chorasmar.	—Bert. du Guesclin, <i>d.</i>
1381	Wat Tyler's and Jack Straw's insurrection in England.	
--	Peace between Venice and Genoa.	
--	Bills of Exchange first used in England.	
1383	Cannon first used by the English in the defence of Calais.	1383 Abulfeda, <i>sar. d.</i>
1384	Philip the Bold, duke of Burgundy, succeeds to the earldom of Flanders.	1385 Wickliffe, <i>d.</i>
1386	Tamerlane subdues Georgia.	
1388	Battle of Otterburn between Percy (Hotspur) and Douglas.	
1389	¶ Pope Boniface IX.	
1390	ROBERT III. king of Scotland.	
--	[— Bajazet I. emperor of the Turks.]	
1391	MANUEL II. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.	
1392	The Cape of Good Hope discovered by the Portuguese.	
1394	The Jews banished from France by Charles VI.	
--	¶ Pope Benedict XIII.	
1395	Sigismund king of Hungary defeated by Bajazet I.	
1398	Tamerlane subdues part of Hindostan, and takes Delhi.	
1399	Henry IV. king of England.	
1402	Bajazet is taken prisoner by Tamerlane in the battle of Angoria.	Froissart, <i>hist d.</i>
--	Battle of Halidoun Hill, in which the Scots are defeated.	Sir John Gower, <i>part d.</i>
--	[— Solyman I. emperor of the Turks.]	1400 Geoffrey Chaucer, <i>poet, d.</i>
1403	Battle of Shrewsbury, in which Hotspur is killed.	
1404	¶ Pope Innocent VII.	
1405	Death of Tamerlane.	
1406	JAMES I. king of Scotland.	1408 Owen Glendour, <i>d.</i>
--	¶ Pope Gregory XII.	1409 Nicholas Klamet, <i>alch. d.</i>
1409	Council of Pisa, where pope Gregory is deposed.	
--	¶ Pope Alexander V.	
--	[— Musa emperor of the Turks.]	
1410	JOSEPH (Marquis of Brandenburg) emperor of Germany.	
--	¶ Pope John XXIII.	
1411	SIGISMUND emperor of Germany.	
--	The University of St. Andrew's in Scotland founded.	
1413	Henry V. king of England.	
1414	Council of Constance, in which two popes were deposed, and the popedom remained vacant near three years.	
--	[— Mahomet I. emperor of the Turks.]	1415 Em. Chrysoloras, <i>d.</i>
1415	Henry V. defeats the French at Agincourt. John Huss condemned by the council of Constance for heresy, and burnt.	

A.D.		
1416	Jerome of Prague condemned by the same council, and burnt.	
1417	¶ Pope Martin V.	
—	Paper first made from linen rags.	Alain Chartier, <i>poet, d.</i>
1418	The island of Madeira discovered by the Portuguese.	
1421	JOHN VI. (Palæologus) emperor of the East.	
1422	Amurath besieges Constantinople.	1422 T. Wolsingham, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Henry VI. king of Eng'and.	
—	Charles VII. king of France.	
—	JAMES I. king of Scots liberated from captivity by the English	1424 Earl of Buchan, <i>cons. of France, d.</i>
—	(Amurath II. emperor of the Turks.)	Monstrelet, <i>hist. f.</i>
1425	The court of Session in Scotland instituted by James I.	
1428	Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans, compels the English to raise the siege of that town.	Joan d'Arc, <i>d.</i>
1431	¶ Pope Eugene IV.	
—	Rise of the Medici family at Florence.	
1436	Paris recovered by the French from the English.	
1437	James II. king of Scotland.	
1438	ALBERT II. emperor of Germany.	Scanderbeg, <i>f.</i>
1439	Reunion of the Greek and Latin churches.	
—	The Pragmatic Sanction established in France.	
1440	FREDERICK III. emperor of Germany.	
—	Invention of the art of printing by John Gutenberg at Strasburg.	
1444	Ladislau, king of Hungary, killed in battle with the Turks.	1443 L. Aretin, <i>d.</i>
1445	CONSTANTINE (Palæologus) emperor of the East.	
1446	Great inundation of the sea in Holland.	
1447	¶ Pope Nicholas V.	1447 Humphrey, duke of Gloucester, <i>d.</i>
1448	Rise of the Sforza family at Milan.	
—	(Mahomet II. emperor of the Turks.)	
1453	Constantinople taken by the Turks. — EXTINCTION OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE OF THE ROMANS.	
—	End of the English government in France.	
1455	¶ Pope Calixtus III.	
—	Battle of St. Alban's, where Henry VI. is taken prisoner by the Duke of York.	
1458	¶ Pope Pius II. Æneas Sylvius.	1459 Poggio of Florence, <i>d.</i>
1459	The art of engraving on copper invented.	John Fust, <i>f.</i>
1460	JAMES III. king of Scotland.	
—	Battle of Wakefield, where the Duke of York is killed.	
1461	Edward IV. king of England.	Rowley, <i>poet of Brist. f.</i>
—	Louis XI. king of France.	1464 Cosmo de Medici, <i>d.</i>
—	Battle of Tooton, in which the party of Lancaster is defeated.	1465 Laur. Valla, <i>d.</i>
1468	[The Orkney and Shetland Islands given to James III. of Scotland, as the dowry of Christiern of Denmark's daughter.]	— Æn. Sylvius, <i>d.</i>
1470	Henry VI. restored to the throne of England.	1470 Regiomontanus, <i>d.</i>
1471	Battle of Barnet, where Warwick is killed. — Battle of Tewkesbury, where the Lancastrians are totally defeated.	1471 Th. à Kempis, <i>d.</i>

A.D.		
1471	Edward IV. restored.—Prince Edward of Lancaster basely murdered by Clarence and Gloucester.—Death of Henry VI.	
—	† Pope Sixtus IV.	
1474	The Cape de Verd islands discovered by the Portuguese.	
1475	Edward IV. invades France.—Peace of Pecquigni purchased by the French.	1478 Theod. Gaza, <i>d.</i>
1478	The conspiracy of the Pazzi against the Medici at Florence suppressed. The authority of Lorenzo de Medici established.	
1479	Ferdinand and Isabella unite the kingdoms of Arragon and Castile.	
1481	Russia freed from subjection to the Tartars by John.	1481 Philephus, <i>d.</i>
—	[— Bajazet II. emperor of the Turks.]	
1483	Charles VIII. king of France.	B. Platina, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Edward V. king of England.—Duke of Gloucester, protector.	
1483	Edward V. and his brother murdered.	
—	Richard III. king of England.	
1484	† Pope Innocent VIII.	
1485	Battle of Bosworth, in which Richard III. is killed.	Picus Mirandola, <i>f.</i>
—	Henry VII. king of England, first of the house of Tudor. Union of the houses of York and Lancaster.	Pomponius Laetus, <i>his. f.</i> Alex. ab Alexandro, <i>hist. f.</i>
1488	JAMES IV. king of Scotland.	1490 Boiardo, <i>poet. d.</i>
1491	Granada taken by Ferdinand and Isabella.—End of the kingdom of the Moors in Spain.	Chalcondiles, <i>hist. f.</i>
1492	† Pope Alexander VI. (Borgia).	1491 Anno de Viterbo, <i>d.</i>
—	Hispaniola and Cuba discovered by Christopher Columbus	1492 W. Caxton, <i>printer, d.</i>
1493	MAXIMILIAN I. emperor of Germany	
1494	Expedition of Charles VIII. into Naples.	Politian, <i>d.</i>
—	Algebra first known in Europe.	
—	America discovered by Columbus.	
1497	The Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, double the Cape of Good Hope, and sail to the East Indies.	
1498	Lewis XII. king of France.	
—	Savonarola burnt by pope Alexander VI. for preaching against the vices of the clergy.	
1499	Lewis XII. takes possession of the Milanese.	1499 Marcillus Ficinus, <i>d.</i>
—	Sebastian Cabot lands in North America.	
1500	Brazil discovered by the Portuguese.	
—	Maximilian divides Germany into six circles, and adds four more in 1512.	
1503	† Pope Pius III.	1502 Peter Martyr, <i>d.</i>
—	† Pope Julius II.	1503 Jov. Pontanus, <i>d.</i>
—	Battle of Cerizoles, in which the French lose Naples.	
1504	Philip I. king of Spain.—1506. Jane his queen.	1504 P. Beroaldus, <i>hist. d.</i>
1507	Madagascar discovered by the Portuguese.	1507 Cæsar Borgia, <i>d.</i>
1508	League of Cambray against the Venetians.	
1509	Henry VIII. king of England.	1509 Phil. de Comines, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Battle of Agnadello, May 11.	
1511	[— Selim I. emperor of the Turks.]	

A.D.	
1511	Cuba conquered by the Spaniards.
1512	The French defeat the Venetians in the battle of Ravenna.
1513	Battle of Flodden, fatal to the Scots.
—	The English defeat the French in the battle of the Spurs.
—	JAMES V. king of Scotland.
—	¶ Pope Leo X.
1515	Francis I. king of France.
—	Battle of Marignan, in which the French defeat the Swiss.
1516	Charles I. (emperor Charles V.) king of Spain.
—	Barbarossa seizes the kingdom of Algiers.
1517	The Reformation in Germany begun by Luther.
—	The Turks put an end to the reign of the Mamelukes in Egypt.
1518	Leo X. condemns Luther's doctrines.
1519	CHARLES V. emperor of Germany.
—	Fernando Cortez engages in the conquest of Mexico.
—	[Magellan explores the South Seas]
1520	[— Solyman II. (the Magnificent) emperor of the Turks.]
—	Sweden and Denmark united.
—	Massacre of Stockholm by Christiern II and archbishop Trollo.
1521	¶ Pope Adrian VI.
—	Gustavus Vasa, king of Sweden.
—	Cortez completes the conquest of Mexico.
1522	The first voyage round the world performed by a ship of Magellan's squadron.
—	Rhodes taken by the Turks.
1523	Solyman the Magnificent takes Belgrade.
—	¶ Pope Clement VII.
—	Sweden and Denmark embrace the Protestant faith.
1525	Battle of Pavia, in which Francis I. is taken prisoner by Charles V.
1526	Treaty of Madrid between Charles V. and Francis I. when the latter is set at liberty.
1527	Rome taken and plundered by Charles V.
—	Pizarro and Dalmagro invade the empire of Peru.
1528	Revolution of Genoa by Andrea Doria.
—	Gustavus Ericson crowned king of Sweden.
1529	Diet of Spire against the Huguenots, then first termed Protestants.
—	Peace of Cambray, August 5.
1530	The league of Smalcald between the Protestants.
1531	Michael Servetus burnt for heresy at Geneva.
1532	The treaty of Nuremberg, August 2.
—	The Court of Session in Scotland new-modelled by James V.
1534	The Reformation takes place in England.
—	¶ Pope Paul III.
—	Barbarossa seizes the kingdom of Tunis.
—	Jack of Leyden heads the Anabaptists at Munster.
1512	Gaston de Foix, <i>d.</i>
1513	Aldus Manutius, <i>d.</i>
	Fabian, <i>hist. f.</i>
1516	Bap. Mantuanus, <i>poet. d.</i>
	Cardinal Ximenes, <i>d.</i>
	Cardinal Adrian, <i>d.</i>
1520	Raphael Urb. <i>painter. d.</i>
—	H. Boece, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Hen. Stephen, <i>sen. pr. d.</i>
—	Leon. da Vinci, <i>painter. d.</i>
1522	Gawin Douglas, <i>poet. d.</i>
1523	Alex. ab Alex. <i>d.</i>
—	P. Melancthon, <i>d.</i>
1524	T. Lonacre, <i>med. d.</i>
1525	Jo. Pistor, <i>theol. f.</i>
1527	Con. de Bourb. <i>d.</i>
—	J. Froben, <i>pr. d.</i>
1528	A. Durer, <i>paint. d.</i>
1529	Machiavel, <i>hist. d.</i>
1530	B. Donatus, <i>cr. d.</i>
—	A. Alciat, <i>poet. d.</i>
—	Sannazarius, <i>poet. d.</i>
1531	Zuinglius, <i>d.</i>
—	Occolampadius, <i>d.</i>
1533	Lud. Ariosto, <i>poet. d.</i>
1534	Corn. Agrippa, <i>d.</i>

A.D.		
1535	The society of the Jesuits instituted by Ignatius Loyola.	1535 Sir Th. More, <i>d.</i>
—	Expedition of Charles V. against Tunis.	M. Accursius, <i>phil. f.</i>
1538	[The Bible in English appointed to be read in the churches of England.]	1536 Erasmus, <i>d.</i>
—	Treaty of Nice between Charles V. and Francis I.	
1540	Dissolution of the monasteries in England by Henry VIII.	1540 Budæus Ictus, <i>d.</i>
1542	Defeat of the Scots at Solway moss.	— Jobanus Hessus, <i>d.</i>
—	MARY, queen of Scotland.	— Guicciardini, <i>hist. d.</i>
1544	The French defeat the troops of Charles V. in the battle of Cerizoles. The treaty of Crép.	Jo. Major, <i>hist. d.</i>
1545	The council of Trent begins, which continued eighteen years.	Jo. Bale, <i>biog. f.</i>
—	The Scots defeat the English at Ancram muir.	1541 Paracelsus, <i>phys. d.</i>
1546	Cardinal Beaton, archbishop of St. Andrew's, assassinated.	1543 Copernicus, <i>phil. d.</i>
1547	Piseco's conspiracy at Genoa.	1544 L. Bauf, <i>poet. d.</i>
—	The battle of Mulberg, in which the Protestants are defeated, and the elector of Saxony taken prisoner.	— Cl. Marot, <i>poet. d.</i>
—	Edward VI. king of England.	— Ol. Magnus, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Henry II. king of France.	1545 Bellai, <i>poet. d.</i>
—	Battle of Pinkie of Scotland, where the Scots are defeated by the English.	1546 P. Jovius, <i>hist. d.</i>
1549	The Interim granted by Charles V. to the Protestants.	1547 Lud. Vives, <i>d.</i>
1550	† Pope Julius III.	— Card. Bembo, <i>d.</i>
1552	The treaty of Passau between Charles V. and the elector of Saxony, for the establishment of Lutheranism.	— Pentinger, <i>geog. d.</i>
1553	MARY, queen of England.	— Vatablus, <i>gram. d.</i>
—	Lady Jane Grey beheaded.	— Card. Sadoletus, <i>d.</i>
1555	† Pope Marcellus II.	
—	† Pope Paul IV.	1550 Trissino, <i>poet. d.</i>
—	Many bishops burnt in England by Mary.	— Sædan, <i>hist. d.</i>
1556	FERDINAND I. emperor of Germany.	1551 J. Leland, <i>ant. d.</i>
—	Philip II. king of Spain.	
1557	Philip II. defeats the French at St. Quintin.	1553 Fr. Rabelais, <i>d.</i>
1558	Calais taken by the French from the English.	— J. Duhravius, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Elizabeth, queen of England.	— Francastorius, <i>poet. d.</i>
1559	† Pope Pius IV.	1555 Polyd. Virgil, <i>d.</i>
—	Francis II. king of France.	
—	Treaty of Château-Cambresis.	1556 Ign. Loyola, <i>d.</i>
1560	Charles IX. king of France.	— Pet. Arctin, <i>d.</i>
—	Conspiracy of Amboise, formed by the party of Condé against that of Guise.—Beginning of the civil wars in France.	1558 J. P. Valerianus, <i>poet. d.</i>
—	The Reformation completed in Scotland by John Knox.	— J. C. Scaliger, <i>d.</i>
—	[The papal authority abolished by parliament in Scotland.]	— Aldrovandus, <i>d.</i>
1561	Mary queen of Scots arrives in Scotland from France.	1559 R. Stephens, <i>print. d.</i>
1562	Battle of Dreux.—Victory of the Guises over Condé.	Mich. de l'Hospital Chan. f.
1564	[Siege of Malta by the Turks, who are defeated.]	
		1563 Seb. Castalio, <i>d.</i>
		— Roger Ascham, <i>d.</i>
		1564 Jo. Calvin, <i>theol. d.</i>
		— Michael Angelo, printer, <i>d.</i>

A.D.		
1564	MAXIMILIAN II. emperor of Germany.	1565 Con. Gesner, <i>phil.</i>
1566	† Pope Pius VI.	<i>d.</i>
—	Revolt of the Netherlands from Philip II.	1566 Hier. Vida, <i>po. d.</i>
—	[— Selim II. emperor of the Turks.]	— Han. Caro, <i>po. d.</i>
—	Murder of David Rizzio in Scotland.	— Castlevetro, <i>crit. d.</i>
1567	The duke of Alva sent by Philip to the Netherlands.	
—	King Henry Darnley murdered Feb. 9th.	
—	JAMES VI. king of Scotland.	
1568	Mary queen of Scots flies into England for protection.	
—	Philip II. [exterminates the Moors from Spain, and] puts to death his son Don Carlos.	
1569	The earl of Murray, regent of Scotland, assassinated by Hamilton.	
—	The battles of Jarnac and Montcontour in France, in which the Protestants are defeated.	
1571	Naval victory at Lepanto, where the Turks are defeated by Don John of Austria.	
1572	† Pope Gregory XIII.	1572 John Knox, <i>d.</i>
—	The massacre of St. Bartholomew, August 24th.	— Adm. Coligny, <i>d.</i>
1573	[Haerlem taken by the Spaniards.]	— H. Cardan, <i>d.</i>
1574	Henry III. king of France.	— Peter Ramus, <i>d.</i>
—	Socinus propagates his opinions.	1574 Paul Manutius, <i>d.</i>
—	Don Sebastian, king of Portugal, invades Africa.	
—	Memorable siege of Leyden, raised by the prince of Orange and the admiral Boissot.	
1575	[— Amurath III. emperor of the Turks.]	
1576	RODOLPHUS II. emperor of Germany.	1576 Titian Vecelli, <i>painter, d.</i>
—	The league in France formed against the Protestants.	
1578	[The Spaniards under Don John of Austria defeated in the battle of Rimenant.]	
1579	Commencement of the republic of Holland, by the union of Utrecht.	1579 Camoens, <i>poet, d.</i>
—	Battle of Alcagar, the Portuguese under Don Sebastian defeated by Muley Moluck.	
1580	Phillip II. takes possession of Portugal.	1580 Palladio, <i>arch. f.</i>
—	The world circumnavigated by Sir Francis Drake.	— Osorius, <i>d.</i>
1582	The Raid of Ruthven in Scotland.	1582 G. Buchanan, <i>d.</i>
—	The new style introduced into Italy by pope Gregory XIII. the 5th of October being counted the 15th.	
1584	William I. prince of Orange murdered at Delft.	
—	Virginia discovered by Sir Walter Raleigh.	
1585	[Schah Abbas the Great, king of Persia.]	1585 Bodinus, <i>d.</i>
—	† Pope Sixtus V.	— Car. Sigonius, <i>d.</i>
1587	Mary queen of Scots beheaded at Fotheringhay.	— Ronsard, <i>poet, d.</i>
1588	Destruction of the Spanish Armada by the English.	1588 Sir Ph. Sydney, <i>d.</i>
1589	Henry III. of France murdered by Jacques Clement.	1588 Paul Veronese, <i>painter, d.</i>
—	Henry IV. (the Great) king of France.	

A.D.		
1590	The battle of Ivry, which ruins the league in France.	M. Frobisher, <i>nov. f.</i> 1590 J. Cujas, <i>ictus. f.</i>
—	¶ Pope Urban VII.	
—	¶ Pope Gregory XIV.	
1591	The university of Dublin erected.	1591 Pancirollus, <i>d.</i>
—	¶ Pope Innocent IX.	1592 M. Montagne, <i>d.</i>
1592	Presbyterian church-government established in Scotland.	
—	[— Mahomet III. emperor of the Turks.]	
—	¶ Pope Clement VIII.	
1596	Cadiz taken by the English.	1595 Torq. Tasso, <i>po. d.</i>
1598	Edict of Nantes, tolerating the Protestants in France.	1596 Ald. Manutius, <i>d.</i>
—	Peace of Vervins, concluded between France and Spain.	1598 Hen. Stephens, <i>jun. d.</i>
—	Philip III. king of Spain.	— E. Spencer, <i>port. d.</i>
—	Tyrone's rebellion in Ireland.	
1600	Gowrie's conspiracy in Scotland.	
—	The earl of Essex beheaded.	
—	The English East India company established.	R. Hooker, <i>D. D. d.</i>
1602	Decimal arithmetic invented at Bruges.	1601 Tycho Brahe, <i>phil. d.</i>
1603	James I. king of Great Britain. Union of the crowns of England and Scotland.	1604 Janus Doussa, <i>f.</i>
—	[— Achmet I. emperor of the Turks.]	Kepler, <i>phil. f.</i>
1605	The gunpowder plot discovered.	Galileo, <i>phil. f.</i>
—	¶ Pope Paul V.	Theodore Beza, <i>d.</i>
1608	Galileo discovers the Satellites of Jupiter.	1607 Card. Baronius, <i>d.</i>
—	Arminius propagates his opinions.	— Justus Lipsius, <i>d.</i>
1610	Henry IV. of France murdered by Ravaillac.	1609 Jos. Scaliger, <i>d.</i>
—	Lewis XIII. king of France.	— An. Caracci, <i>paint. d.</i>
—	The Moors expelled from Spain by Philip III.	1610 Broccolini, <i>f.</i>
—	Hudson's Bay discovered.	
1611	Baronets first created in England by James I.	
1612	MATTHIAS emperor of Germany.	1614 Is. Casaubon, <i>d.</i>
1614	Logarithms invented by Napier of Merchiston	1615 Et. Pasquier, <i>d.</i>
1616	Settlement of Virginia by Sir Walter Raleigh.	1616 W. Shakespeare, <i>d.</i>
1617	[— Mustapha emperor of the Turks.]	1617 Napier of Merchiston, <i>d.</i>
1618	The Synod of Dort in Holland.	— De Thou, <i>hist. d.</i>
1619	Discovery of the circulation of the blood by Dr. Harvey.	1618 Carb. Perron, <i>d.</i>
—	FERDINAND II. emperor of Germany.	— Sir Walter Raleigh, <i>d.</i>
—	Vanini burnt at Thoulouse for Atheism.	Mig. Cervantes, <i>d.</i>
1620	The battle of Prague, by which the elector Palatine loses his electorate.	Vossius, <i>crit. f.</i>
—	[— Orhan II. emperor of the Turks.]	Meursius, <i>crit. f.</i>
—	The English make a settlement at Madras.	
—	Navarre united to France.	
1621	Philip IV. king of Spain.	
—	[— Amurath IV. emperor of the Turks.]	
—	¶ Pope Gregory XV.	
1623	¶ Pope Urban VIII.	1623 Wm. Camden, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Institution of the knights of Nova Scotia by James I.	— Paul Sarpi, <i>d.</i>
1625	Charles I. king of Great Britain.	1624 Mariana, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	The island of Barbadoes planted;—the first English settlement in the West Indies.	1628 Malherbe, <i>po. d.</i>
—	Knights baronets first created in Scotland.	Gui. Rheni, <i>paint. f.</i>
1626	League of the protestant princes against the emperor.	Rubens, <i>paint. f.</i>
		Bacon Lord Verulam, <i>d.</i>
		Fam. Strada, <i>hist. f.</i>

A.D.		
1632	Gustavus Adolphus killed in the battle of Lutzen.	1630 Kepler, <i>d.</i>
—	Christina, queen of Sweden.	1631 H. C. Davila, <i>hist. d.</i>
1635	The French Academy instituted.	1635 Lope de Vega, <i>poet. d.</i>
1637	FERDINAND III. emperor of Germany.	1638 Ben Jonsson, <i>d.</i>
1638	Bagdad taken by the Turks.	
—	The solemn League and Covenant established in Scotland.	
1640	John, duke of Braganza recovers the kingdom of Portugal.	
1641	The Irish rebellion, and massacre of the protestants, October 23.	1641 M. Duke of Sully, <i>d.</i>
—	[— Ibrahim emperor of the Turks.]	— A. Vandyke, <i>d.</i>
—	The earl of Strafford beheaded.	— H. Spelman, <i>d.</i>
1642	Beginning of the civil war in England.—The battle of Edgehill, October 23.	1642 Galileo, <i>phil. d.</i>
1643	Lewis XVI. king of France.	— Card. Richelieu, <i>d.</i>
—	Anne of Austria regent of France.	1643 Jo. Hampden, <i>d.</i>
—	Archbishop Laud condemned by the Commons, and beheaded.	
1644	¶ Pope Innocent X.	1644 Bentivoglio, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Revolution in China by the Tartars.	— Chillingworth, <i>d.</i>
1645	Charles I. defeated in the battle of Naseby.	— Van Helmont, <i>d.</i>
1648	The peace of Westphalia.—The civil war of the Fronde at Paris.	1645 H. Grotius, <i>d.</i>
1649	[— Mahomet IV. emperor of the Turks.]	1647 Quevedo, <i>po. d.</i>
—	Charles I. of England beheaded.	1648 Voiture, <i>d.</i>
—	The Commonwealth of England begins.	1649 W. Drummond, <i>poet and hist. d.</i>
1650	The marquis of Montrose put to death.	— F. Strada, <i>d.</i>
—	Battle of Dunbar.—Covenanters defeated by Cromwell.	1650 Vossius, <i>d.</i>
1651	The battle of Worcester won by Cromwell.	Des Cartes, <i>phil. d.</i>
1652	The first war between the English and Dutch.	Ingo Jones, <i>arch. d.</i>
1653	[The Dutch fleet defeated by Monk, thirty ships taken, and Van Tromp killed, July 30th.]	1652 Petavius, <i>hist. d.</i>
1654	End of the Commonwealth of England.—Oliver Cromwell lord protector.	1653 Salmasius, <i>d.</i>
—	The English, under admiral Penn, take possession of Jamaica.	
—	Christina queen of Sweden resigns the crown to Charles X.	1654 Balzac, <i>d.</i>
1655	¶ Pope Alexander VII.	John Selden, <i>ant. d.</i>
1658	Dunkirk delivered to the English.	
—	LEOPOLD I. emperor of Germany.	1655 Gassendi, <i>phil. d.</i>
—	Richard Cromwell, lord protector of England.	— Archbp. Usher, <i>d.</i>
1659	The peace of the Pyrenees between France and Spain.	1656 Nicholas Poussin, <i>paint. d.</i>
1660	Charles II. king of Great Britain.—Restoration of monarchy.	1657 W. Harvey, <i>d.</i>
—	The peace of Oliva between Sweden, Denmark, and Poland.	— Adm. Blake, <i>d.</i>
1662	The Royal Society instituted in England.	1658 Gasp. Barthius, <i>d.</i>
—	Dunkirk sold back to the French.	Scarron, <i>poet. d.</i>
1663	Carolina planted.	Simosa, <i>phil. f.</i>
—	The French Academy of Inscriptions instituted	Pascal, <i>d.</i>
1664	The second Dutch war begins.	1660 H. Hammond, <i>d.</i>
1665	Charles II. king of Spain.	1661 Card. Mazarin, <i>d.</i>
—	Great plague in London.	— M. of Argyle, <i>d.</i>
1666	Great fire of London.	— Don L. de Haro, <i>d.</i>

A D.		
1666	The Academy of Sciences instituted in France.	
--	Sabatei Levi, in Turkey, pretends to be the Messiah.	
--	The Scots Covenanters defeated on Pentland hills.	
1667	The peace of Breda, which confirms to the English, Pennsylvania, New York, and New Jersey.	1667 Ab. Cowley, <i>po. d.</i> Sam. Bochart, <i>d</i>
--	¶ Pope Clement IX.	
--	[The Spanish Netherlands invaded by Louis XIV.]	
1668	The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.	
1669	The Island of Candia taken by the Turks.	1669 Sir John Denham, <i>poet, d.</i>
1670	¶ Pope Clement X.	1671 Mot. le Vayer, <i>d.</i>
1672	Lewis XIV. conquers great part of Holland.	-- Gronovius, <i>ant. d.</i>
--	The De Witts put to death in Holland.	-- Moliere, <i>poet, d.</i>
1674	John Sobieski, king of Poland.	1672 Chanc. Seguier, <i>d.</i>
1676	¶ Pope Innocent XI.	1674 John Milton, <i>d</i>
--	Carolina planted by the English.	-- Labbadie, <i>d.</i>
1678	The peace of Nimueguen, July 31.	Ed. E. of Clarendon, <i>d.</i>
--	The Habeas Corpus act passed in England.	1675 Turenne, <i>d.</i>
1679	The Long Parliament of Charles II. dissolved.	1676 De Ruyter, <i>d.</i>
1681	Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy.	-- Sir Mat. Hales, <i>d. *</i>
1683	Execution of Lord Russell, 21st July.	1678 Spinosa, <i>d.</i>
--	Execution of Algernon Sydney, 7th December.	1679 Th. Hobbes, <i>d.</i>
--	The siege of Vienna by the Turks raised by John Sobieski.	-- D. de Rochefoucault, <i>d.</i>
1685	James II. king of Great Britain.	-- Card. de Retz, <i>d.</i>
--	Revocation of the edict of Nantes by Lewis XIV.	-- Mezeray, <i>hist. d.</i>
--	Duke of Monmouth beheaded.	1680 T. Bartolin, <i>d.</i>
1686	The Newtonian philosophy first published in England.	-- Sam. Butler, <i>d.</i>
--	The league of Augsbourg against France.	-- Mad. Bourignon, <i>d.</i>
1687	— Soliman III. emperor of the Turks.	-- Athan. Kircher, <i>d.</i>
1688	Revolution in Britain.—King James abdicates the throne, December 23.	1681 Montecuculi, <i>d.</i>
1689	William and Mary, king and queen of Great Britain.	Sir J. Marsham, <i>chron. d.</i>
--	Episcopacy abolished in Scotland by King William.	1682 Sir T. Brown, <i>phys d.</i>
--	Battle of Gilliecrankie.—The king's troops defeated.—The Viscount of Dundee slain, July 16th, O.S.	1683 J. B. Colbert, <i>d.</i>
--	¶ Pope Alexander VIII.	1684 Pet. Corneille, <i>d.</i>
1690	Battle of the Boyne, July 1st.	1686 Maimbourg, <i>hist d.</i>
1691	¶ Pope Innocent XII.	1687 Ed. Waller, <i>po. d.</i>
1692	Battle of La Hogue, May 19th.	-- Rapiu, <i>poet, d.</i>
--	The massacre of Glencoe in Scotland, Jan. 31st, O.S.	1688 Du Cange, <i>d.</i>
--	Battle of Steenkirk.—King William defeated by Luxembourg, July 24th.	-- R. Cudworth, <i>d.</i>
--	Hanover made the ninth electorate of the empire.	-- Duke of Ormond, <i>d.</i>
1694	[The Bank of England incorporated.]	C. le Brun, <i>paint. d.</i>
1695	— Mustapha II. emperor of the Turks.]	G. Menage, <i>d.</i>
--	Namur taken by King William, June 25th.	1691 R. Boyle, <i>phil. d.</i>
1697	Peace of Ryswick concluded, September 11th.	-- Sir G. Mackenzie, <i>d</i>
--	Peter the Great gains a signal victory over the Turks, and takes Azoph.	1691 S. Puffendorf, <i>d.</i>
		Huygens, <i>phil. d.</i>
		1695 La Fontaine, <i>d.</i>
		-- Dr. Bushy, <i>d.</i>
		1696 La Bruyere, <i>d.</i>
		acme, <i>d.</i>

A.D.		
1697	Charles XII. king of Sweden.	
1699	Peace of Carlowitz concluded January 26th.	1699 Bp. Stillingfleet, <i>d.</i>
—	The Scots attempt a colony at Darien;	
1700	[Charles XII. begins his first campaign, takes Copenhagen.]	Sir Wm. Temple, <i>d.</i>
—	Philip V. king of Spain.	
—	† Pope Clement XI.	
1701	Death of James II. at St. Germain's.	1701 John Dryden, <i>d.</i>
1702	Ann, queen of Great Britain.—War against France and Spain.	E. of Sunderland, <i>d.</i>
—	The English and Dutch destroy the French fleet at Vigo.	
—	The French send colonies to the Mississippi.	
1703	— Achmet III. emperor of the Turks.	1703 J. G. Grievius, <i>d.</i>
—	Gibraltar taken by Admiral Rooke, July 24th.	St. Evremont, <i>poet, d.</i>
1704	Battle of Blenheim.—The French defeated by Marlborough and prince Eugene, Aug. 2d.	Dr J. Wallis, <i>d.</i>
—	Peter the Great founds St. Petersburg.	1704 John Locke, <i>d.</i>
1705	The English take Barcelona.	1705 Jo. Ray, <i>nat. d.</i>
—	Joseph I. emperor of Germany.	
1706	Battle of Ramilies.—The French defeated by the duke of Marlborough, May 12th.	1706 Bossuet, <i>bp. d.</i>
—	The treaty of union between England and Scotland, signed July 22nd.	— John Evelyn, <i>a.</i>
1707	The battle of Almanza.—The French and Spaniards, under the duke of Berwick, defeat the allies, April 14th.	— P. Bayle, <i>d.</i>
1708	Battle of Oudenarde.—The French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, June 30th.	— Ch. E. of Dorset, <i>d.</i>
—	Minorca taken by general Stanhope, Sept. 18th.	1707 M. Vanban, <i>d.</i>
1709	Battle of Pultowa.—Charles XII. defeated by Czar Peter, June 30th.	Geo. Farquhar, <i>po. d.</i>
—	Battle of Malplaquet.—The French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, Sept. 11th.	
1711	CHARLES VI. emperor of Germany.	
1713	The peace of Utrecht, signed March 30th.	1711 N. Boileau, <i>d.</i>
1714	George I. elector of Hanover, king of Great Britain.	1712 Cassini, <i>phil. d.</i>
1715	Lewis XV. king of France.	Ash. Cooper, earl of Shaftesbury, <i>d.</i>
—	The rebellion in Scotland.—Battle of Sheriffmuir, November 13th.	1715 Fenelon, <i>abn. d.</i>
1716	Prince Eugene defeats the Turks at Peterwaradin.	— Bp. Burnet, <i>d.</i>
1718	Charles XII. of Sweden killed at the siege of Fredericksh. ll.	— Malbranche, <i>phil. d.</i>
1720	The Mississippi scheme in France projected by John Law, breaks up May 23rd.	Leibnitz, <i>phil. d.</i>
—	The South Sea scheme breaks [up] in England September.	1718 Mad. Dacier, <i>d.</i>
1721	† Pope Innocent XIII.	1719 M. Maupenon, <i>d.</i>
1724	† Pope Benedict XII.	— Jos. Addison, <i>d.</i>
1725	Death of Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy.	— Flamstead, <i>d.</i>
—	—Catharine Empress.	1720 Heinsius, <i>Grand Pensionary, d.</i>
1726	Great earthquake at Palermo, August 21st.	1721 Mat. Prior, <i>d.</i>
1727	George II. king of Great Britain.	— Huet, <i>d.</i>
—	Treaty of Copenhagen between Great Britain and Denmark.	1722 Dacier, <i>d.</i>
—	The Spaniards besiege Gibraltar, May 20th.	— C. Fleury, <i>hist. d.</i>
		1723 Sir Chr. Wren, <i>d.</i>
		— H. Prideaux, <i>d.</i>
		— Basnage, <i>hist. d.</i>
		1724 W. Wollaston, <i>d.</i>
		1725 Kneller, <i>d.</i>
		Sir Isaac Newton, <i>d.</i>

A.D.		
1728	Treaty between Great Britain and Holland, May 27th.	
—	The Congress of Soissons, June 14th.	
1729	Treaty of Seville between Great Britain, France, and Spain, November 9th.	1729 Dr. St. Clarke, <i>d.</i>
1730	† Pope Clement XII.	— Sir Rich. Steele, <i>d.</i>
—	— Mahomet V. emperor of the Turks.	— W. Congreve <i>po. d.</i>
—	— Christian VI. king of Denmark.	— John Law, <i>Mississippi, d.</i>
—	— The Persians under Kouli-Khan, defeat the Turks.	1730 L. Eachard, <i>hist. d.</i>
1731	Treaty between Great Britain, the emperor, and king of Spain, July 22nd.	1731 Dr. Atterbury, <i>bp. of Rochester, d.</i>
1733	The Jesuits expelled from Paraguay, January.	— Dan. Defoe, <i>d.</i>
—	— Frederick III. king of Poland.	1732 Jo. Gay, <i>poet, d.</i>
1734	Commercial treaty between Great Britain and Russia, December 2nd.	1733 Corelli, <i>mus. d.</i>
1735	The French defeat the Imperialists in Italy.	1734 Dr. J. A. Mathon, <i>d.</i>
1736	Peace between Spain and Austria.	— Duke of Berwick, <i>d.</i>
—	— Kouli Khan (Nadir-Schah) proclaimed king of Persia, September 29th.	1735 Dr. Wm. Derham, <i>d.</i>
1737	War declared between the emperor and the Turks, July 2nd.	— Bp. Tanner, <i>ant. d.</i>
1738	The Russians invade the Crimea.	— Vertot, <i>hist. d.</i>
1739	Nadir-Schah conquers the greatest part of the Mogul empire.	1736 J. Le Clerc, <i>d.</i>
—	— Treaty between Great Britain and Denmark.	— Lord Lansdown, <i>poet, d.</i>
—	— Peace between the emperor and the Turks, August 21.	1737 Elis. Rowe, <i>d.</i>
—	— Peace between Russia and the Turks, Nov.	— Ld. Chan. Talbot, <i>d.</i>
—	— Portobello taken by Admiral Vernon, Nov. 21st.	1738 Dr. Boerhaave, <i>d.</i>
1740	Frederick III. (the Great) king of Prussia.	1739 Dr. N. Sanderson, <i>math. d.</i>
—	— † Pope Benedict XIV.	1740 Eph. Chambers, <i>d.</i>
—	— War between Poland and Hungary.	— T. Tickell, <i>poet, d.</i>
1741	War declared between Russia and Sweden.	1741 Pet. Burman, <i>conv. d.</i>
—	— Carthage taken by Admiral Vernon, June 19th.	— B. Montfaucon, <i>ant. d.</i>
—	— The Prussians masters of Silesia, Oct. 20th.	— Ch. Rollin, <i>hist. d.</i>
1742	Peace between Austria and Prussia, June 11th.	— R. Sanderson, <i>ant. d.</i>
—	— Defensive alliance between Great Britain and Prussia, November 18th.	— Card. Polignac, <i>d.</i>
—	— CHARLES VII. (of Bavaria) emperor of Germany.	1742 Dr. Edm. Halley, <i>math. d.</i>
1743	Defensive alliance between Great Britain and Russia, February.	— Dr. Rich. Bentley, <i>d.</i>
—	— War in Germany between the British, Hungarians, French, and Austrians.	— Dr. Boulter, <i>arch-bishop of Armagh, d.</i>
—	— The French defeated by the allies at Dettingen, June 6th.	— L. Theobald, <i>d.</i>
1744	War declared in Great Britain against France, March 31st.	1743 Jo. Ozell, <i>d.</i>
—	— The king of Prussia takes Prague.	— Fr. Peck, <i>ant. d.</i>
—	— Commodore Anson completes his voyage round the world.	— Card. de Fleury, <i>d.</i>
1745	FRANCIS I. (of Lorraine) emperor of Germany.	— J. G. Keyser, <i>ant. d.</i>
—	— Quadruple alliance between Britain, Austria, Holland, and Poland, January 8th.	— Hya. Rigaud, <i>paint. d.</i>
—	— The allied army defeated by the French at Fontenoy, April 30th.	1744 Al. Pope, <i>po. d.</i>
		— Roger Gale, <i>ant. d.</i>
		1745 Dr. Jon. Swift, <i>d.</i>

A.D.

- 1745 Louisburg and Cape Breton taken by the British troops, June 6th.
 — The rebellion breaks out in Scotland, July.
 — Defeat of the king's forces by the rebels at Prestonpans, September 21st.
 — Treaty of Dresden between Prussia, Poland, Austria, and Saxony, December 25th.
 1746 Defeat of the king's forces by the rebels at Falkirk, January 17th.
 — Ferdinand VI. king of Spain.
 — Frederick V. king of Denmark.
 — Count Saxe takes Brussels and Antwerp.
 — Victory of Culloden, which puts an end to the rebellion in Scotland, April 16th.
 — Lords Balmerino and Kilmarnock beheaded, August 18th.
 — Count Saxe defeats the allies at Raucoux, October 11th.
 1746 Dreadful earthquake at Lima, October 17th.
 1747 Lord Lovat beheaded, April 9th.
 — The French defeat the allied army at Lafeldt, July 2nd.
 1748 Bergen-op-zoom taken by the French, Sept. 5th.
 — The French fleet defeated by admiral Hawke, October 14th.
 — Kouli-Khan murdered.--Revolution in Persia.
 1748 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle between Great Britain, France, Spain, Austria, Sardinia, and Holland, October 7th.
 1749 League between the Pope, Venetians, &c. against the Algerines, &c.
 1750 Joseph, king of Portugal.
 — Academy of Sciences founded at Stockholm.
 — Commercial treaty between Great Britain and Spain, October 5th.
 1751 Adolphus, of Holstein, king of Sweden.
 — Peace between Spain and Portugal.
 1752 New Style introduced in Britain, September 3rd, reckoned 14th.
 1753 The British Museum established in Montague house.
 1754 Great eruption of Ætna.
 — Great earthquake at Constantinople and Cairo, September 2nd.
 — [Othman III. emperor of the Turks.]
 1755 Defeat of General Braddock near Fort du Quesne, July 9th.
 — Lisbon destroyed by an earthquake, November 1st.
 1756 War declared between Great Britain and France, May 18th.
 — Surrender of Minorca by Blakeney, June 28th.
 1757 Damians attempts to assassinate Lewis XV.
 — King of Prussia defeats the Austrians at Reichenberg and Prague.
 — Mustapha III. emperor of the Turks.
 — Count Daun repulses the king of Prussia at Kolin, June 18th.
- 1716 Col. Maclaurin, *math. d.*
 — Barratier, *phil. d.*
 — T. Southerne, *po. d.*
 1747 Barbeyrac, *pol. phil. d.*
 — Tho. Chubb, *d.*
 — Dr. J. J. Dillenius, *bot. d.*
 — M. Maittaire, *d.*
 — Abp. Potter, *d.*
 — E. Holdsworth, *crit. d.*
 — President Forbes, *d.*
 1748 Ja. Thompson, *poet. d.*
 — Dr. Is. Watts, *d.*
 — Dr. Fr. Hutcheson, *d.*
 — Dr. Geo. Cheyne, *d.*
 — Rev. C. Pitt, *poet. d.*
 1749 T. Odell, *dram. d.*
 — N. Freret, *chron. d.*
 1750 Dr. Conyers Middleton, *d.*
 — And. Baxter, *d.*
 — Aaron Hill, *noel. d.*
 Apost. Zeno, *dram. d.*
 1751 H. Lord Bolingbroke, *d.*
 — Dr. Alex. Monro, *sen. d.*
 — Dr. Doddridge, *d.*
 1752 Wm. Cheseldon, *ant. d.*
 — Wm. Whiston, *math. d.*
 — Card. Alberoni, *d.*
 1753 Berkeley, *bp. of Clogne, d.*
 — Sir Hans Sloane, *d.*
 1754 Dr. Rich. Mead, *d.*
 — Henry Fielding, *d.*
 — Demouivre, *math. d.*
 — H. Pelham, *d.*
 — J. Gibbs, *arch. d.*
 1755 M. de Montesquieu, *d.*
 — Dr. R. Rawlinson, *d.*
 1756 Gilbert West, *d.*
 1757 Colley Cibber, *com. d.*
 — Dom. Calmet, *benef. dict. d.*

A.D.		
1757	Verden and Bremen taken by the French, August.	1757 W. Maitland, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Convention of Closterseven, September 8th.	— M. de Fontenelle, <i>port. d.</i>
—	The Prussians defeat the French and Austrians at Rosbach, November 5th.	— Dr. Herring, <i>abp. of Canterbury, d.</i>
—	The king of Prussia master of Silesia, Dec. 21.	
1758	¶ Pope Clement XIII.	
—	Senegal taken by the English, May 1st.	1758 Rev. J. Harvey, <i>d.</i>
—	The English repulsed at Ticonderoga, July 8.	— L. Heister, <i>anat. d.</i>
—	The British troops take Louisburg, July 27th.	— B. Hoadley, <i>drum. d.</i>
—	Count Daun defeats the king of Prussia at Mouchkirken, October 19th.	
—	The British troops take Fort du Quesne, November 25th.	
—	Gorce taken by Keppel, December 20th.	
1759	Guadaloupe surrendered to the English, May 1st.	1759 G. Fr. Handel, <i>mus. d.</i>
—	The French defeated by the allied army at Minden, August 1.	
—	Charles III. king of Spain.	
—	The Jesuits expelled from Portugal, Sept. 3d.	
—	General Wolfe takes Quebec, September 17th.	
—	French fleet defeated by Boscawen off Gibraltar, August 18th.	
—	French fleet defeated by Hawke off Belleisle, November 20th.	
1760	Montreal and Canada taken by the British troops, September 8th.	1760 Count Zeinzendorf, <i>d.</i>
—	George III. king of Great Britain, Oct. 25th.	
—	The king of Prussia defeats the Austrians at Torgau, November 3rd.	1761 Dr. T. Sherlock, <i>d.</i>
1761	Pondicherry taken by the English, Jan. 15th.	— Bishop Hoadley, <i>d.</i>
1762	Martinico surrendered to the English, Feb. 4th.	— Sam. Richardson, <i>Non. d.</i>
—	Peter III. emperor of Russia.	— Dr. J. Leland, <i>d.</i>
—	The Jesuits banished from France, August.	— Stephen Dole, <i>d.</i>
—	Havannah taken by the English, August 12th.	1762 Dr. J. Bradley, <i>astr. d.</i>
—	Peace between Great Britain and France at Fontainebleau, November 3rd.	— Gemmiani, <i>mus. d.</i>
1763	Peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, at Paris, February 10.	— Lady M. Wortley Montague, <i>d.</i>
—	Catharine II. empress of Russia.	1763 N. Hooke, <i>hist. d.</i>
1764	Stanislaus II. king of Poland.	— W. Shenstone, <i>po. d.</i>
—	Sujah Dowla defeated by Munro at Buxar, October 23rd.	1764 R. Dodsley, <i>po. d.</i>
—	Byron's discoveries in the South Seas.	— Ja. Anderson, <i>hist. d.</i>
1765	Joseph II. emperor of Germany.	— Ch. Churchill, <i>po. d.</i>
1766	American stamp-act repealed, March 15th.	1765 Dr. Ed. Young, <i>port. d.</i>
—	The Jesuits expelled from Bohemia and Denmark.	— Dr. Stukely, <i>ant. d.</i>
—	Christian VII. king of Denmark.	— R. Simson, <i>math. d.</i>
1767	The Jesuits expelled from Spain, Genoa, and Venice.	— Da. Mallet, <i>port. d.</i>
—	Wallis and Carteret's discoveries in the South Seas.	1766 Dr. T. Birch, <i>hist. d.</i>
1768	Royal Academy of Arts established in London.	— Dr. Sam. Chandler, <i>d.</i>
—	The Jesuits expelled from Naples, Malta, Parma.	— Dr. Ro. Whytt, <i>phys. d.</i>
—	Bougainville's discoveries in the South Seas.	1768 Laur. Sterne, <i>d.</i>
		— Dr. F. Sticker, <i>abp. of Canterbury, d.</i>
		— Ja. Short, <i>opt. d.</i>
		— A. Winkler, <i>opt. d.</i>

- A.D.
- 1769 ¶ Pope Clement XIV.
 -- Cook's first discoveries in the South Seas.
 -- Corsica taken by the French, June 13th.
- 1770 Earthquake at St. Domingo.
- 1771 Gustavus III. king of Sweden.
- 1772 Revolution in Sweden, August 19th.
 -- Poland dismembered by Russia, Prussia, and Austria.
- 1773 Cook's second voyage and discoveries.
 -- The society of the Jesuits suppressed by the pope's bull, August 25th.
- 1774 Lewis XVI. king of France.
 -- [— Abdhul-Achmet, emperor of the Turks.]
 -- [American war commenced, November 15th.]
- 1775 Battle of Bunker's hill in America, June 7th.
- 1776 ¶ Pope Pius VI.
 -- The Americans declare their independence, July 4th.
- 1777 Mary queen of Portugal.
 -- Philadelphia taken by the British troops, October 3rd.
- 1778 League between the French and Americans, October 30th.
- 1779 Peace between the Imperialists and Prussians, May 13th.
 -- Great eruption of Vesuvius, August 8th.
 -- Siege of Gibraltar by the Spaniards, July.
 -- Captain Cook killed [at Owhyhee.]
- 1780 Sir G. Rodney defeats the Spanish fleet near Cape Vincent, January 16th.
 -- Charlestown surrenders to the British, May 12th.
 -- Riots in London on account of the Popish bill, June 2nd.
 -- Lord Cornwallis defeats the Americans at Camden, August 16th.
 -- War declared between Great Britain and Holland, December 20th.
- 1781 The Americans defeated at Guilford by Lord Cornwallis.
 -- Surrender of the British troops to the Americans and French at Yorktown, Oct. 18th.
- 1782 Sir G. Rodney defeats the French fleet off Dominica, April 12th.
 -- [Sir Edw. Hughes defeats the French fleet under Suffren in the East Indies, Feb. 17.]
- 1783 Peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, and the independence of America declared, January 20th.
- 1784 Peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24th.
- 1785 Treaty of alliance between Austria, France, and Holland, November 9th.
- 1786 Frederick IV. king of Prussia.
 -- Commercial treaty between England and France, September 26th.
- 1787 The assembly of the Notables convened at Paris, February 22nd.
 -- Mr. Hastings impeached for misdemeanours in the government of India, May 21.
- 769 R. Smith, *math. d.*
 770 Abbe Nollet, *phil. d.*
 -- W. Guthrie, *hist. d.*
 -- T. Chatterton, *po. d.*
 -- Dr. J. Jortin, *d.*
 -- Dr. Mark Akenside, *d.*
 -- Dr. Tobias Smollett, *d.*
 771 Th. Gray, *poet. d.*
 773 Ph. Earl of Chesterfield, *d.*
 -- G. Ld. Lyttleton, *d.*
 -- M. de Voltaire, *d.*
 774 M. de la Condamine, *d.*
 -- Ol. Goldsmith, *po. d.*
 -- Zach. Pearce, *bp. of Rochester. d.*
 -- H. Baker, *nat. phil. d.*
 775 Dr. J. C. Hawksworth, *d.*
 -- Dr. John Campbell, *hist. d.*
 776 Da. Hume, *hist. d.*
 -- Ja. Ferguson, *math. d.*
 777 S. Foote, *com. d.*
 -- W. Boyer, *print. d.*
 -- Haller, *phys. d.*
 778 Dr. Jo. Gregory, *d.*
 -- Dr. Linnaeus, *nat. d.*
 -- J. J. Rousseau, *d.*
 779 Dav. Garrick, *com. d.*
 -- W. Warburton, *bp. of Gloucester. d.*
 -- Dr. J. Armstrong, *poet. d.*
 780 Sir Wm. Blackstone, *d.*
 -- Dr. Gaubius, *d.*
 -- Sir J. Stewart, *d.*
 782 T. Newton, *bp. of Bristol. d.*
 -- Metastasio, *poet. d.*
 -- Gen. Home, *Lt. rd. Names. d.*
 -- Dr. Wm. Hunter, *d.*
 783 D'Alembert, *phi. d.*
 -- Euler, *math. d.*
 784 Dr. S. Johnson, *d.*
 -- W. Whitehead, *poet laureat. d.*
 1785 R. Burn, *L.L.D. d.*
 -- Rich. Glover, *po. d.*
 1786 Jonas Hanway, *d.*
 1787 Bp. Lowth, *d.*
 -- Soame Jenyns, *d.*
 -- Dr. Edm. Law, *bp. of Caclisle. d.*
 -- F. Sydnam, *d.*
 -- Dr. J. Rotherham, *d.*

- A.D.
- 1788 Prince Charles Edward died at Rome, Jan. 31st.
- The Parliament of Paris remonstrates against the use of *Lettres de Cachet*, March 16th.
- Defense alliance between England and Holland, April 25th.
- The Regency-bill debated by the House of Commons, December 10th.
- 1789 The abolition of the Slave-trade proposed in Parliament.
- Selim III. [emperor of the Turks.] April.
- The Assembly of the States General opened at Paris, May 5th.
- They form themselves into the National Assembly, June 16th.
- The Bastile taken, and the Governor massacred, July 14th.
- The Princes of the blood and chief Noblesse leave France, July.
- The king of France brought to Paris, accepts the declarations of the Rights of Man, October 6th.
- Decree for dividing France into eighty three departments, October 30th.
- 1790 Monastic establishments suppressed in France, February 13th.
- Titles of nobility suppressed, February 21th.
- War commenced in India with Tippoo Sultan, May 1st.
- General confederation at Paris in the Champs de Mars, July 14th.
- LEOPOLD II. emperor of Germany.
- 1791 The king of France, with his family, escape from Paris, but are intercepted at Varennes, June 22nd.
- Riots at Birmingham, July 14th.
- The king of France accepts the constitution, September 14th.
- 1792 FRANCIS II. emperor of Germany.
- Gustavus III. king of Sweden assassinated by Ankerström, March 29th.
- Gustavus IV. king of Sweden. — Duke of Sudermanna regent in his minority.
- An armed mob forces the Tuileries, and insults the king of France, June 20th.
- The Duke of Brunswick, with the combined armies of Austria and Prussia, arrives at Coblenz, July 3rd.
- The National Assembly decrees the country in danger, July 11th.
- Petition and the community of Paris demand the king's deposition, August 3rd.
- The Tuileries again attacked. The king and queen of France take refuge in the National Assembly. — The Swiss guards massacred by the populace, August 10th.
- The royal authority suspended by the National Assembly, August 10th.
- 1787 Dr. Abel, *mus. d.*
- Id. Pres Dundas, *d.*
- Ja. Stuart, F.R.S., *d.*
- T. Gainsborough, *paint. d.*
- T. Sheridan, *d.*
- M. Savery, *roy. d.*
- Count de Buffon, *d.*
- 1789 W.J. Mickle, *poet, d.*
- Rev. Jo. Logan, *poet, d.*
- J. Ledyard, *trav. d.*
- Sir Jo. Hawkins, *d.*
- Marq. de Mirabeau, *d.*
- Vernet, *paint. d.*
- Id. Pres. Mider, *d.*
- 1790 Dr. Wm Cullen, *phys. d.*
- Dr. Adam Smith, *d.*
- Dr. Benj. Franklin, *d.*
- John Howard, *d.*
- Rev. F. Warton, *poet laureat, d.*
- General Roy, *d.*
- Dr. W. Henry, *hist. d.*
- 1791 Rev. Rich. Price, *L.L.D. d.*
- Dr. T. Blacklock, *poet, d.*
- Rev. J. Wesley, *d.*
- Fr. Grose, *ant. d.*
- Cat. Macaulay, *hist. d.*
- Prof. Michaelis, *d.*
- 1792 Dr. Born, *min. d.*
- Sir Josh. Reynolds, *paint. d.*
- Wm. Tytler, *d.*
- Dr. Horn, *bishop of Norwich, d.*
- Ro. Adam, *arch. d.*
- John E. of Butte, *d.*
- Sir Rich. Arkwright, *d.*
- Sir Robert Strange, *engr. d.*
- Lord Hailes, *d.*
- John Smeton, *eng. d.*

A.D.		
1792	The Royal Family imprisoned in the Temple,	
	August, 14th.	
---	A dreadful massacre of the state-prisoners at	
	Paris, September 2d, 3d.	
---	The National Convention is constituted, the	
	king deposed, and France declared a republic,	
	Sept. 21st.	
-	The republic decrees fraternity and assistance	
	to all nations in the recovery of their	
	liberty, November 19th.	
---	Savoy incorporated with the French republic,	
	November 27th.	
---	The convention decrees the trial of Louis	
	XVI. December 2nd.	
---	Louis XVI. brought to trial, answers each	
	article of accusation, December 14th.	
1793	Louis XVI. condemned to death by a majority	1793 Dr. Wm. Robertson, <i>hist. d.</i>
	of five voices, January 17th.	- Mrs. Griffiths, <i>nov. d.</i>
---	Louis XVI. beheaded, Jan. 21st.	- Wm. Earl of Mansfield, <i>d.</i>
	The Alien Bill passed in the British House of	- Dr. T. Mudge, <i>opt. d.</i>
	Commons, January 21th.	- Wm. Hudson, F.R.S. <i>d.</i>
	Russia declares war against France, Jan. 31st.	- Ld. Gardenstone, <i>d.</i>
-	The French convention declares war against	- Dr. J. Thomas, <i>bp. of R. Chester, d.</i>
	England and Holland, February 1st.	- D. Seres, <i>paint. d.</i>
	Lyons declares for Louis XVII. February 28th.	- Baron de Tot, <i>d.</i>
	Decree for the French people rising in a mass,	- Rich. Tickell, <i>d.</i>
	August 20th.	- Ld. Romney, F.R.S. <i>d.</i>
	Surrender of Toulon to Lord Hood's fleet,	- John Hunter, M.D. <i>d.</i>
	August 28th.	
	Maria Antonette queen of France condemned	1794 Edw. Gibbon, <i>hist. d.</i>
	to death by the Convention, and beheaded	- Earl of Cambden, <i>d.</i>
	the same day, October 15th.	- Dr. Woodward, <i>bp. of Cloque, d.</i>
	Brissot and the chiefs of the Girondist party	- Dr. Jo. Roehuck, <i>d.</i>
	guillotined.	- Charles Pigot, <i>d.</i>
	Robespierre triumphant, November.	- Earl Bathurst, <i>d.</i>
	The English evacuate Toulon, December 19th.	- Geo. Colman, <i>dray. d.</i>
1794	The Princess Elizabeth of France beheaded,	- Card. de Bernis, <i>d.</i>
	May 12th.	- James Bruce, <i>trav. d.</i>
	The Habeas Corpus act suspended, May.	
	Lord Howe defeats the French fleet off Ushant,	
	June 1st.	
	Robespierre, with his chief partisans, guil-	
	lotined, July 28th.	
	The Jacobin Club suppressed, October 18th.	
	Trials of Hardy, Tooke, Thelwall, &c. for	
	treason, November.	
1795	The stadtholder takes refuge in England. —	1795 Sir Wm. Jones, <i>d.</i>
	Holland overrun by the French, January	- Rev. Dr. Al Gerard, <i>d.</i>
	[Ceylon taken by the British under general J.	- James Boswell, <i>d.</i>
	Stewart and com. Ramer, February 15th.]	- Wm. Smellie, <i>d.</i>
	Mr. Hasting's trial ended by his acquittal,	
	April 22nd.	
	Lyons bombarded, laid in ruins, and all its	
	loyal inhabitants massacred, May.	
	Louis XVII. died in prison at Paris, June 8th.	
	The Cape of Good Hope taken by the British	
	forces, September 16th.	
	Belgium incorporated with the French re-	
	public, September 30th.	

- A.D.
 1795 Great disorders in Ireland, October, November, December.
 — Stanislaus II. resigns the Crown of Poland.— The kingdom divided between Russia, Austria, and Prussia, November 25th.
 1796 The Count d'Artois, with his suite, take up their residence at Edinburgh, January 6th.
 — The East-India company votes an indemnification and recompence to Mr. Hastings, January.
 — The French overrun and plunder Italy.
 — Lord Malmesbury negotiates for peace at Paris, October 28th.
 — Death of Catharine II.—Paul Emperor of Russia, Nov. 17th.
 — Lord Malmesbury quits Paris, December 26th.
 1797 A mutiny of the British fleet at Portsmouth and the Nore suppressed, May, June.
 — The Scots Militia bill passed, July.
 — Negotiations at Lisle for a peace ineffectual.
 — The Dutch fleet beaten and captured by Lord Duncan, October 11th.
 1798 The papal government suppressed by the French.—The pope quits Rome, Feb. 26th.
 — Ireland in open rebellion, May, June, &c.
 — [The French fleet defeated, by Sir J. B. Warren, October 12th.]
 — Lord Nelson totally defeats the French fleet in the battle of the Nile, August 1st.
 — The Swiss finally defeated, and their independence abolished, September 19th.
 1799 An union with Ireland proposed in the British parliament, January 23d.
 — The motion rejected by the Commons of Ireland, January 24th.
 — Seringapatam taken by General Harris, and Tippoo Sultan killed, May 4th.
 — [The French under Bonaparte defeated by Sir Sydney Smith, at Acre, Mar 21st.]
 — Expedition of the British troops against Holland, August.
 — Death of pope Pius VI. September.
 — The British troops evacuate Holland, Nov.
 — A revolution at Paris.—Bonaparte declared First Consul, December 11th.
 8.30 Vote of the Irish House of Commons, agreeing to the Union, February 5. Similar vote of the House of Lords, 17th.
 — Bonaparte defeats the Austrians in the battle of Marengo in Italy, June 14th.
 — Armistice between the French and Austrians in Germany, July 15th.
 — The new pope, Pius VII. restored to his government by the emperor, July 25th.
 — Malta taken by the British forces, Sept. 5th.
 801 First meeting of the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain and Ireland, January.
 — Mr. Pitt resigns, after being minister eighteen years, February 9th.—Mr. Addington chancellor of the exchequer.
 1796 Rob Burns, poet, d.
 — Jo Anderson, F.R.S. d.
 — Rev. Dr. G Campbell, d.
 — Rev. Dr. Ja. Fordyce, d.
 — Dr. Th. Reid, d.
 — Henry Flood, M.P. d.
 — Ja. Macpherson, d.
 1797 Edm. Burke, d.
 — Wal. Minto, math. d.
 — Rev. Wm. Mason, poet, d.
 — Dr. James Hutton, d.
 — Hor. Walpole, Earl of Orford, d.
 — Dr. Lessot, d.
 — Jos. Wright, paint d.
 — Dr. Rich. Farmer, d.
 — Dr. Enfield, d.
 — C. Macklin, com. d.
 1798 Duke de Nivernois, d.
 — Dan. Web, d.
 — Dr. Edw. Waring, d.
 — J. Z. Holwell, d.
 — P. F. Suhm, d.
 — W. Wale, F.R.S. d.
 — J. Reimh. Foster, d.
 — J. H. Artzenius, d.
 — J. P. Panet on, d.
 — Rev. C. M. Crache-rolle, d.
 — L. Galvani, d.
 — Wm. Seward, F.R.S. d.
 — C. Borda, d.
 — Rev. Jos. Tucker, d.
 1799 Wm. Welmoth, d.
 — Ld. Monboddo, d.
 — Dr. Ch. Morton, F.R.S. d.
 — Jo. Strange, LL.D. d.
 — Jos. Towers, LL.D. d.
 — Dr. Joseph Black, d.
 1800 Bry. Edwards, d.
 — Hon. Daines Barrington, d.
 — Wm. Cruickshank, anat. d.
 — J. B. le Roy, d.
 — C. Girtanner, d.
 — W. Cowper, poet, d.
 — J. S. Montucla, d.
 — Rev. Jos. Warton, poet, d.
 — Dr. D. Lysons, d.
 — P. A. Guys, d.
 — Rev. Wm. Tasker, d.

A. D.	1801	[The battle of Alexandria, near 4000 French killed and wounded by the British under Abercrombie.]	1800 Dr. W. Brownrigg d.
		— Death of Paul.— Alexander I. emperor of Russia, March 23d.	— M. Mallet du Pan, d.
		— Battle of Copenhagen, April 3d.	— Rev. W. Thomas, d.
		— Taking of Cairo by the British troops, May 11th.	— J. Bapt. Munos, d.
		— [The Paddington canal opened for trade by a grand aquatic procession, July 10th.]	— Rev. Dr. H. Bian, d.
		— Alexandria surrendered to the British troops, August 27th.	— M. de Guignes, d.
		— Preliminaries of peace signed between Great Britain and France, October 1st.	1801 Sir Geo. Staunton d.
	1802	Mutiny in Admiral Mitchell's fleet in Bantry Bay, January 15th.	— Ro. Orme, <i>hist. d.</i>
		— The Catholic religion re-established in France, March.	— C. Lavater, d.
		— The definitive treaty with France signed, March 27th.	— T. Malton, <i>math. d.</i>
		— The parliament dissolved, June 20th.	— Dr. W. Heberden, d.
		— The king of Sardinia resigns his crown to his brother, July.	— Rev. W. Drake, d.
		— Bonaparte declared chief Consul for life, July.	— Prof. Jo. Millar, d.
		— Paswan Oglow submits to the Porte, Nov.	— Gilb. Waketield, d.
		— A new parliament meets.—Mr. Abbot elected speaker of the Commons, November 16th.	1802 Arthur O'Leary, d.
		— Switzerland finally subdued by the French.	— Earl of Clare, d.
	1803	Execution of Colonel Despard for high treason, February.	— Welbore Ellis, d.
		— The militia of the United Kingdom called out and embodied, March.	— Ed. C. J. Kenyon, d.
		— The emperor of Germany ratifies the new organisation of Germany, April.	— M. de Calonne, d.
		— Dissolution of the peace with France.—Lord Whitworth, ambassador, quits Paris, May.	— Erasim Darwin, M.D. d.
		— The French seize Hanover, June 4.	— Col. Turner, <i>trav. d.</i>
		— Insurrection in Dublin.—Habeas Corpus suspended, and martial law proclaimed, July.	— Duke of Bedford, d.
		— Treaty between Great Britain and Sweden, August.	— Geo. Forster, M.D. d.
		— Defeat of Row Scindia and Berar Rajah at Ajuntj Pass, by General Wellesley.	— John Moore, M.D. d.
		— The British troops enter Delhi, and the Great Mogul puts himself under the protection of general Lake, September.	— Mrs. Chapone, <i>misc. d.</i>
	1804	Murder of the duke d'Enghien by order of Bonaparte, 15th March.	— Jos. Strutt, <i>antiq. d.</i>
		— Mr. Pitt resumes his situation as Prime Minister, 10th May.	— Dr. Arnold, <i>mus. com. d.</i>
		— Bonaparte proclaimed emperor of the French, 20th May.	— Dr. Henry Hunter, <i>biog. d.</i>
		— Dessalines in St. Domingo declares himself emperor of Hayti, October.	— Dr. Alex. Geddes, <i>trav. and critic. d.</i>
		— The pope arrives at Fontainebleau, and has an interview with Bonaparte, November.	— Dr. Thomas Garnett, <i>philos. d.</i>
		— Bonaparte crowned emperor by the pope, December 2d.	— James Bazire, <i>eng. d.</i>
		— The emperor of Germany assumes the title, &c. of hereditary emperor of Austria, August.	1803 Earl of Bristol, <i>bp. of Derry, d.</i>
			— Dr. James Beattie, d.
			— Dr. John Erskine, d.
			— Klopstock, <i>poet. d.</i>
			— Sir Wm. Hauntkov, <i>antiq. d.</i>
			— M. de la Harpe, <i>crit. d.</i>
			— Wm. Jackson, <i>mus. com. d.</i>
			— John Holle, <i>transl. d.</i>
			— Thos. Astle, <i>antiq. d.</i>
			— Dr. R. Griffith, <i>crit. d.</i>
			— Jos. Ritson, <i>antiq. d.</i>
			— Henry Swinburne, <i>trav. d.</i>
			1804 Adm. Ed. Duncan, d.
			— Rev. Robert Potter, <i>transl. d.</i>
			— Jos. Priestly, L.L.D. d.
			— Dr. Tho. Percival, d.
			— G. Morland, d.
			— Ed. C. J. Arden, d.
			— M. Necker, d.

A.D.

- 1805 The Spaniards declare war against Great Britain, January.
- Union of the Genoese or Ligurian Republic with France declared, February.
- Bonaparte assumes the title of king of Italy, March.
- Impeachment of Lord Melville, which terminated in his complete acquittal.
- Defeat of the Spanish fleet by Sir Robert Calder, July.
- Lord Nelson defeats the fleets of France and Spain at Trafalgar. — Takes 20 sail, and is killed in the engagement, 21st October.
- Sir R. Strachan takes four French ships of the line off Cape Ortegal, 4th November.
- The French defeat the Austro-Russian army at Austerlitz, December 2d.
- 1806 Death of William Pitt, 23d January. — His debts discharged, and a statue decreed to his memory, at the public expense.
- The Cape of Good Hope surrendered to the British, January.
- Admiral Duckworth captures and destroys five French ships of the line, February 6th.
- Louis Bonaparte proclaimed king of Holland, June 5th.
- The House of Lords concurs with the Commons in the resolutions for abolishing the slave trade, June.
- Sir John Stuart defeats the French under Regnier at Maida in Calabria, July.
- Surrender of Buenos Ayres to general Beresford and Sir Home Popham, July.
- French squadron of five frigates defeated and captured by Sir Samuel Hood, September.
- Death of Charles James Fox, September 13th.
- Rupture of the negotiation for peace with France and return of Earl Lauderdale, October.
- Parliament dissolved and a new one called, 24th October.
- The French defeat the Prussians in the great battle of Jena, which annihilates the Prussian power, October 14th.
- Hamburg occupied by the French under Mortier, November.
- Bonaparte declares the British Isles in a state of blockade, November.
- The slave trade abolished by act of Parliament, February.
- Recapture of Buenos Ayres by the Spaniards.
- Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed king of Naples and Sicily.
- Bonaparte subverts the ancient constitution of Germany, and forms the confederation of the Rhine.
- The Electors of Saxony, Bavaria, and Wirtemberg assume the title of king.
- Jerome Bonaparte proclaimed king of Westphalia.
- 1804 M. Didot, *stereo-pr.* d.
- M. Pallas, *tran.* d.
- Win. Gelpin, *misc.* d.
- Jacob Bryant, *ant.* d.
- Rev. R. Graves, *novelist.* d.
- Ald. J. Boydell, d.
- 1805 Earl of Rosslyn, *Ld. Chancellor.* d.
- Prof. John Robinson, *M.D.* d.
- Arthur Murphy *po.* d.
- Wm. Paley, *D.D.* d.
- Jas. Currie, *M.D.* d.
- Patr. Russel, *M.D.* d.
- John Clark, *M.D.* d.
- Prof. J. F. Gmelin, d.
- M. Julien, *sculpt.* d.
- Fred. Schiller, *poet.* d.
- 1806 E. Edwards, d.
- Prof. And. Dalzel, d.
- G. Steevens, *critic.* d.
- Elizabeth Carter, d.
- Abbe Raynal, d.
- Earl Macartney, d.
- Rev. J. Brand, *antiq.* d.
- Lord Thurlow, d.
- Dr. Samuel Horsley, *theolog.* d.
- James Barry, *paint.* d.
- Charlotte Smith, *poetess.* d.

A.D.

- 1807 The king changes the ministry.—Mr. Percival Chancellor of the Exchequer, March.
 — Parliament dissolved after a session only of four months, April.
 — Dantzic taken by the French, May.
 — Revolution at Constantinople, Sultan Selim deposed, and Sultan Mustapha proclaimed, May.
 — Battle of Friedland.—Russians defeated by the French, June 14.
 — Peace signed at Tilsit between France and Russia and Prussia, June.
 — The Turkish fleet defeated in the Archipelago by the Russians, July.
 — Copenhagen bombarded, and all the Danish fleet surrendered to the British, September 7th, under Lord Cathcart and Admiral Gambier.
 — The British evacuate South America, Sept.
 — The British troops evacuate Egypt, October.
 — The Prince Regent and Royal Family of Portugal embark for Brazil, November 29th.
 — The island of Madeira surrenders to Great Britain, in trust for Portugal, December.
- 1808 The French prohibit all commerce with Great Britain, January.
 — A new French nobility created by Bonaparte, January.
 — The French troops enter Rome, and seize the Pope's dominions, February.
 — Frederick VI. King of Denmark, March.
 — Charles IV. abdicates the crown of Spain to his son Ferdinand VII. March 19th.
 — The French under Murat enter Madrid, March 23rd.
 — Joachim Murat declared King of the Two Sicilies, in the room of Joseph Bonaparte, made King of Spain.
 — British goods prohibited to be imported into Russia, April.
 — Ferdinand VII. is compelled to renounce the throne of Spain, and is sent with the Royal Family to Paris.—Murat declared Lieutenant-General of Spain.—The Junta of Seville declares war against France, May.
 — Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed King of Spain, June 16th.
 — The Portuguese arm against the French.—The Spanish patriots solicit aid from Great Britain, June.
 — The Grand Seignior Mustapha deposed.—Mahmond II. Turkish Emperor, July 28th.
 — Battle of Vimeira in Portugal.—The French under Junot defeated by Sir Arthur Wellesley, August 21st.
 — Convention at Cútra, August 30th.
 — Conference held at Erfurth between the Russian Emperor Alexander and Bonaparte, September 27th.
- 1807 N. Des Entans, *d.*
 — Geo. Atwood, *d.*
 — John Lockman, D.D.
 — G. Mason, *critic d.*
 — H. B. Stuart, *cardinal York, d.*
 — Dr. Markham, *archbishop, of York, d.*
 — Dr. Wileis, *phys. d.*
 — M. de Lalande, *astron. d.*
 — J. Opie, *painter, d.*
 — Lewis De Lolme, *d.*
 — J. Bernouilli, *mathemat. d.*
- 1808 Bp. Rich. Hurd, *d.*
 — Alexander Dalrymple, *geog. d.*
 — Alex. Hunter, M.D. *d.*
 — Mad. Cottin, *novelist, d.*
 — Dr. James Anderson, *agricult. d.*
 — J. Ireland, *misc. d.*
 — Rev. John Home, *traged. d.*
 — Dr. William Haweis, *phalanth. d.*
 — Angelica Kauffman, *painter, d.*
 — Rich. Porson, *d.*

- 1798 The ports of Holland shut against Britain, November 27th.
 1799 Battle of Corunna.—The French defeated.—Sir John Moore killed.—The British army re-embark for England, January 16th.
 — The Duke of York accused before the Commons of malversation in office as Commander-in-Chief.—Acquitted, March 17th.
 — Gustavus King of Sweden deposed, March 13th.
 — The French fleet in Basque Roads destroyed by Lord Cochrane, April 12th.
 — The Austrians defeated by the French in the battles of Ratisbon and Eckmühl, April 20 and 23rd.
 — Senegal surrendered to the British, July 20th.
 — The battle of Talavera, in which the French are defeated by Sir Arthur Wellesley, July 27th.
 — The island of Walcheren taken by the British, July 31st.—Evacuated, November 24th.
 — The 50th anniversary of the King's reign celebrated as a jubilee, October 25th.
 — The French fleet in the Mediterranean defeated by Lord Collingwood, October.
 Bonaparte divorces the Empress Josephine, December 16th.
 1800 Amboyna surrenders to a British squadron, January 17th.
 — A French decree was issued, uniting Rome to France, February 17th.
 — Guadaloupe, the last of the French West India islands, surrenders to the British, March 5th.
 — Marriage of Bonaparte with Princess Maria-Louisa of Austria, April 1st.
 — Sir Francis Burdett committed to the Tower for a libel on the House of Commons, April 5th.
 — An attempt made to assassinate the Duke of Cumberland. Sellis, the Duke's valet, found with his throat cut, May 31st.
 — Louis Bonaparte abdicates the throne of Holland, July 1st.
 — The Isle of Bourbon taken by the British, July 8th.
 — Holland united to the French empire, July 9th.
 — Bernadotte chosen Crown Prince of Sweden, August 21st.
 — Murat's army in Sicily defeated by General J. Campbell, September 18th.
 — Battle of Busaco.—The French defeated by Lord Wellington, September 27th.
 — The first meeting of the Cortes in Spain since the usurpation of Bonaparte, September 28th.
 — All British merchandise burnt in France, October 19th.
 — His Majesty afflicted with a similar indisposition to that with which he was confined
- 1800 J. Von Muller, *hist. d.*
 — Alex. Adam, LL.D.
 — Anne Seward, *misc. d.*
 — Rich. Gough, *antiq. d.*
 — F. Holcroft, *dramatist, d.*
 — Dr. D. Pitcairn, *d.*
 — Dr. Beilby Porteus, *bishop of London, d.*
 — Tiberius Cavallo, *philos. d.*
 — Joseph Haydn, *d.*
 — Charles Earl of Liverpool, *d.*
 1810 W. Windham, *d.*
 — Admiral Lel. Collingwood, *d.*
 — Bishop of Elphin, *d.*
 — Queen of Prussia, *d.*
 — Princess Amelia, *d.*
 — The Countess de Talley, (*duke of Louis XVIII.*) *d.*
 — Caleb Whiteford, *d.*
 — Dr. R. Chandler, *traveller, d.*
 — J. de Montgolfier, *d.*
 — L. Schuvaloff, *eng. d.*
 — C. Cagnon, *hist. engr. d.*
 — Henry Cavendish, *d.*
 — Dr. Nevil Maskelyne, *d.*

A.D.	in 1788; and the same announced to both houses of Parliament, November 1st.	
1810	The deposed Gustavus of Sweden arrived in England, November 14th.	
—	Isle of France captured by General Abercromby and Admiral Bertie, Dec. 3rd.	
—	Lucien Bonaparte and his family arrived in this country from Malta, December 13th.	
1811	A deputation from the Lords and Commons waited on the Prince of Wales with an address, praying His Royal Highness to accept of the regency, under certain limitations and restrictions, January 10th.	1811 Rich. Cumberland, <i>dramatic and miscell. writer, d.</i>
—	Parliament opened by commission under the great seal, January 15th.	— Lord Melville, <i>d.</i>
—	Dreadful massacre in Cairo, in which about 1600 Mamelukes lost their lives, March 1st.	— Dr. Percy, <i>bishop of Dromore, d.</i>
—	Battle of Barossa. — The French defeated by General Graham, March 5th.	— Prince Geo. of Brunswick, <i>d.</i>
—	The Empress of France, Maria-Louisa, delivered of a son, who is styled King of Rome, March 20th.	— Rev. Jas. Graham, <i>poet, d.</i>
—	Island of Anholt attacked by a Danish force of nearly 1000 men; but are repulsed by a British force of 150 men, under Captain Maurice, leaving behind them 500 prisoners, March 27th.	— John Leyden, M.D. <i>d.</i>
—	Battle of Albuera. — The French under Soult, defeated by General Beresford, with the loss of 9000 men, May 16th.	— Albanis Beaumont, <i>trav. d.</i>
—	Eruption of a volcano in the sea, off the island of St. Michael, June.	— Matth. Raine, D.D. <i>d.</i>
—	From the excessive heat in July conflagrations took place in the forests of the Tyrol, by which 64 villages, with 10,000 head of cattle, were destroyed, and about 24,000 persons deprived of habitations.	— H.R. Reynolds, M.D. <i>d.</i>
—	The French island of Java capitulated to the British arms, August 8th.	— Dr. Alex. Anderson, <i>d.</i>
—	Feudal rights abolished in Spain, August 19th.	— C. B. Tyre, F.R.S. <i>d.</i>
—	A comet appeared in England, September 1st.	— Sir Francis Bourgeois, <i>painter, d.</i>
—	Serious riots at Nottingham; journeymen weavers destroying articles of machinery which diminished the demand for labour, November 16th.	— Robt. Rakes, <i>instructor of Sunday Schools, d.</i>
—	Dreadful murders of two families (Merr and Williamson) near Batchile Highway, December 8th and 20th.	
1812	Ciudad Rodrigo taken by storm, January 19th, by Lord Wellington, who is thereupon created Duke of Ciudad Rodrigo.	1812 Edw. Hasted, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Destructive earthquake at Cataceas, &c. March 25th.	— Theoph. Jones, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Badajoz taken by storm, April 6th.	— M. Garthshore, M.D. <i>d.</i>
—	Dreadful eruption of a volcano at St. Vincent's, April 30th.	— John Hoine Tooke, <i>d.</i>
—	The Right Hon. Spencer Perceval, Prime Minister of Great Britain, was assassinated in the House of Commons by John Bellingham, May 11th.	— P. J. de Lautherbourg, <i>d.</i>
		— Robt. Willan, M.D. <i>d.</i>
		— Right Hon. Spencer Perceval, <i>are.</i>
		— Dr. Dampier, <i>bp. of Ely, d.</i>
		— Edmund Malone, <i>d.</i>

A.D.

- 1812 Battle of Salamanca, July 22nd; on the receipt of the intelligence of which there were general illuminations in London three successive nights.
- Madrid captured by the British August 12th.
- Smolensko entered by the French, August 18th.
- The siege of Cadiz raised by the French, August 25th.
- Seville captured by the British, August 27th.
- Battle of Moskwa, September 7th.
- The French entered Moscow, three quarters of which, however, the Russians had previously destroyed by fire, September 14th.
- The new theatre Drury Lane opened, October 10th.
- General Brock defeated the American army in Canada, with the loss of his own life, October 13th.
- The passage of the Berezyna cost the French 20,000 men, November 28th.
- The Prince Regent opened the session of Parliament in person, November 30th.
- A 29th bulletin of the French army, presenting a dreadful picture of their sufferings in the retreat from Russia, is dated Molodetchino, December 3.
- Bonaparte arrives in Paris at midnight, December 18th; having quitted his defeated and ruined army in Russia, and travelled *incog.*
- 813 A declaration issued by the British government respecting the causes and origin of the war with America, January 9th.
- A Concordat was signed at Fontainebleau, between Bonaparte and the pope, Pius VII. January 25th.
- Louis XVIII., (the Count de Lille,) published an address to the people of France, February 1st.
- The Russian troops enter Hamburgh, March 18th.
- A treaty of alliance is formed between Russia and Prussia, March.
- Bonaparte again left Paris for the seat of war, April 15th.
- The Spanish Cortes abolish the Inquisition in Spain, April.
- The newly created law officer, called Vice-Chancellor of Great Britain, Sir Thomas Plumer, sat for the first time at Lincoln's Inn Hall, May 1.
- Battle of Lutzen, May 2nd.
- An official statement by the Russian government estimates the loss of the French and their allies, in their invasion of Russia, as follows:—Killed, 24 generals, 2060 staff and other officers, 204,400 rank and file; prisoners, 13 generals, 3411 staff and other officers, 233,222 rank and file: taken, 1121

- 1812 Rev. Lewis Putens, *d.*
- C. S. Sonnini, *d.*
- Admiral de Winter, *d.*
- Rd. Kawan, F.R.S.*d.*
- Dr. C. L. Wuldenow, *bot. d.*
- Chris. Gottlieb Heyne, *d.*
- Gen. Vallancey, *d. &*
- Edw. Jerningham, *d.*
- Prince Kamnitz, *d.*
- Earl of Tyrconnel, *d.*
- Baron G. A. Nolkeu, *d.*

- 1813 A. F. Tytler, Lord Woodhouslee, *d.*
- Count Zinzendorf, *d.*
- N. Schiavonetti, *engr. d.*
- Granville Sharp, *philanth. d.*
- Genl. Fitzpatrick, *d.*
- H. J. Pyc, *poet laureate, d.*
- Rt. Hon. Isaac Corry, *d.*
- Gen. Moreau, *d.*
- Abbé de Lisle, *d.*
- Dr. G. Shaw, *nat. hist. d.*
- J. Wyatt, *archit. d.*
- Dr. Joseph Stock, *bp. of Waterford, d.*
- Getho Wieland, *d.*
- Dr. Randolph, *bp. of London, d.*

A.D.

- pieces of cannon, 63 pairs of colours and standards, one marshal's staff, about 100,000 muskets, and about 27,000 ammunition waggons. The horrible sufferings of the French army in its disastrous retreat from Russia, by the effects of the frost, may be inferred from the statement, that in the three governments of Moscow, Witepsk, and Mohilow, 253,000 dead bodies, and in the city of Wilna and its environs 53,000, had been burned so early as the 27th of March.
- 1813 The great battle of Vittoria in Spain; the French army defeated with immense loss. For this service the Marquis of Wellington was made a Field Marshal.
- The Prince of Orange arrived with despatches from Lord Wellington, announcing the total defeat of Marshal Soult, in Spain, with the loss of 15,000 men, and his retreat into France, August 16th.
- St. Sebastian taken by storm, August 31st.
- Great battles fought at Dresden; in which Gen. Moreau was mortally wounded, September 4th and 5th.
- Despatches from Lord Wellington, detailing his entrance into France, October 18th.
- Leipzig taken, October 19th. Bonaparte, who commanded in person, lost upwards of 80,000 men, and 180 pieces of cannon.
- Fall of Pampeluna, October 31st.
- Intelligence received of a counter-revolution in Holland, November 21st.
- News arrived of the surrender of Dresden by Marshal St. Cyr, with 25,000 men, November 25th.
- 1814 A fair on the Thames, the surface being frozen over above the bridges, Feb. 4th.
- Lord Wellington took possession of Bourdeaux and the inhabitants declared for the Bourbons, March 8th.
- The Allied Sovereigns entered Paris; which was, by a capitulation, recommended to their generosity, March 31st.
- Bonaparte deposed, April 3d.
- Bonaparte embarked at Frejus for Elba, April 28th.
- Louis XVIII. enters Paris, May 3d.
- Peace between England and France signed at Paris, May 30th.
- The Allied Sovereigns entered London June 8th.
- The restoration of the Inquisition proclaimed at Cadiz, in the name of Ferdinand VII., July 18th.
- A grand Jubilee Festival, in celebration of the Peace, and the centenary of the accession of the House of Brunswick. A fair in Hyde Park, which continued twelve days, Aug. 1st.
- 1814 Iffland, the German actor and dramatist, *d.*
W. Hutchinson, *topog. d.*
— Dr. Charles Burney, *hist. of music. d.*
— Dr. J. White, *Hebr. and Arab. prof. d.*
— Prince de Ligne, *d.*
— Tho. Thornton, *trans. d.*
— Cha. Dibdin, *poet and music. d.*
— Sir Busie Harwood, *d.*
— Arch. MacLaurin, *d.*

A.D.

- 1814 The pope issued a bull for re-establishing the order of the Jesuits, August 7th.
 — The Princess of Wales embarked for the Continent, August 9th.
 — Union of Norway to Sweden, August 14th.
 — Federal compact of the Swiss Cantons concluded and accepted, August 16th.
 — Peace proclaimed between France and Spain, August 20th.
 — Washington taken by the British army, August 24th.
 — The Duke of Wellington presented to Louis XVIII., as ambassador from Great Britain, August 24th.
 — Arrival of different sovereigns at Vienna, to form a Congress, September 26th.
 — Great disturbances in Spain; General Mina, at the head of four of his battalions, attempted to take Pampeluna; but was unsuccessful, and fled to France, Sept. 26th.
 — Charles XIII., king of Sweden, proclaimed king of Norway by the Diet at Christiana, November 4th.
 — The first meeting of the Assembly of the kingdom of Hanover was opened by the Duke of Cambridge, December 15th.
 — Treaty of Peace between England and America signed at Ghent, December 24th.
- 1815 The prince regent conferred the Order of the Bath on the officers who had served in the Peninsula, January 2nd.
 English Journals prohibited at Madrid, January 24th.
 — The Chancellor of the Exchequer abandoned the property tax, February 20th.
 — Bonaparte sailed from Elba and landed with 1000 men, at Cannes, March 1st.
 — Bonaparte took possession of Paris, March 21st.
 — Riots in London, occasioned by the Corn Bill, March 6th.
 — The Prince of Orange proclaimed king of the Netherlands, March 21st.
 — Marshal Ney formed a junction with Bonaparte, March 22nd.
 — Bonaparte made an overture of peace to this country, April 1th.
 — The emperor of Austria proclaimed himself also king of Lombardy and Venice, April 13th.
 — Bonaparte left Paris to meet the forces of the allies, May 2nd.
 The three legations restored to the pope, May 20th.
 — MEMORABLE BATTLE OF WATERLOO, June 17th, 18th.
 — The king of Sicily re-entered Naples, after an absence of nine years, June 18th.
 — A general illumination in England, on occasion of the battle of Waterloo, June 22nd.

- 1815 Sam. Whitbread, M.P. d.
 Duke of St. Albans, d.
 Duke of Norfolk, d.
 Wm. Nicholson, engineer, d.
 — J. C. Lettsom, M.D. philanth. d.
 — Rev. Claudius Buchanan, D.D. d.
 Smithson Tennant, chemist, d.
 F. Abington, actress, d.
 — J. P. Malcolm, antiq. d.
 James Ware, oculist, d.
 W. Harrison, discov. of longitude, d.
 P. Salomon, mus. d.
 Rev. Dr. Wm. Vincent, geographer and classic, d.

- A.D.
- 1415 Paris capitulated with the allied powers, July 3d.
 -- Louis XVIII. re-entered Paris, July 8.
 -- Bonaparte went on board the Bellerophon, and gave himself up, to Captain Maitland, July 16th.
 -- The Bellerophon arrived in Torbay, July 21th.
 -- Dethronement of the king of Candy, and the submission of Ceylon to the British, August 1st.
 -- Bonaparte removed from the Bellerophon to the Northumberland, commanded by Sir George Cockburn (who sailed the next day bound to St. Helena,) August 7th.
 -- The allied sovereigns dined with Louis XVIII., September 13th.
 -- Joachim Murat (late king of Naples) shot at Pizzo, October 13th.
 -- Bonaparte landed at St. Helena, October 13th.
 -- Treaties of general peace signed at Paris, November 20th.
- 1810 The emperor of Russia expelled the Jesuits from Petersburg and Moscow, January 2d.
 * St. John's, Newfoundland, destroyed by fire, February 10th.
 -- An attempt to renew the property tax lost in the House of Commons by a majority of 37, March 19th.
 -- The property tax expired, April 5th.
 -- Princess Charlotte of Wales married to Prince Leopold of Saxe Coburg, at Carlton House, May 2nd.
 -- Massacre of the Christians at Bona, by 2000 Turks and Moors, May 23d.
 -- Princess Mary married to the Duke of Gloucester, July 22nd.
 -- Eruption of Mount Vesuvius preceded by an earthquake, August 7th.
 -- Lord Exmouth's victory at Algiers, by which he abolished Christian slavery, August 27th.
 -- Duke of Cambridge appointed Governor-General of Hanover, November 2nd.
 -- Riots in London, December 2nd.
- 1817 Watson, senior, Preston, Hooper, &c. arrested for high treason, February 9th.
 -- New silver coinage issued by government, February 13th.
 -- James Munroe, Esq. inaugurated president of the United States of America, March 4th.
 -- Habeas corpus act suspended, March 7th.
 -- Fortress of Hattaras, in the East Indies, captured, March.
 -- Conspiracy at Lisbon, headed by General Gomez Freire de Andrade, May.
 -- Waterloo Bridge opened by the prince Regent and the dukes of York and Wellington, June 18th.
 -- Watson, senior, Thistlewood, Preston, and Hooper, tried for high treason, June 9th.
 -- Watson's trial lasted till the 16th: when
- 1816 Rich. Brinsley Sheridan, *d.*
 -- Mr. Tomkins, *the celebrated penman, d.*
 -- Earl Stanhope, *phil. chemist, &c. d.*
 -- Visc. Hood, *d.*
 -- Visc. Fitzwilliam, *d.*
 -- A. Ferguson, *L.L.D. moral philos. d.*
 -- Dr. Watson, *bp. of Llandaff, d.*
 -- Pacsiello, *mus. comp. d.*
 -- Eliz. Hamilton, *d.*
 -- Cha. Taylor, *M.D. d.*
- 1817 The Duke of Marlborough, *d.*
 -- W. Thomson, *L.L.D. d.*
 -- Charles Combe, *M.D. F.R. and A.S.S. d.*
 -- Marshall Massena, *Prince of Essling, d.*
 -- Cardinal Maury, *d.*
 -- Werner, *maerulogist, d.*
 -- George Ponsonby, *d.*
 -- The duke of Northumberland, *d.*
 -- Mad. de Stael Holstein, *d.*

- D. the jury found him not guilty. On the following day the others were acquitted.
- 17 At Gloucester the thermometer stood, at noon, in the shade, at 103°, June 21.
- The new gold coin called a sovereign ordered to pass current at 20s. July 5th.
- The dey of Algiers assassinated. September.
- Dreadful hurricane in the West Indies. October 21st.
- The Princess Charlotte of Wales and of Saxe-Coburg died in child birth, Nov. 6th.
- Defeat of the Peshwah, at the head of 10,000 troops, by the British forces in India, November.
- The Rajah of Nagpore entirely defeated by the British; termination of the war in India. December 17th.
- 18 The king of Spain prohibits the slave trade, north of the line in Africa, January 4th.
- Meteor at Toulouse, which discharged atmospheric stones, January 27th.
- The habeas corpus suspension act repealed, January 31st.
- Charles XIII., king of Sweden died, February 20th.
- A very destructive hurricane, throughout England, and in various parts of Europe, March 4th.
- The tomb of Robert Bruce, king of Scotland, discovered at Dunfermline, March 7th.
- Treaty between Great Britain and the Netherlands for abolishing the slave trade, May 4th.
- Imprisonment for debt abolished in the state of New York, June 12th.
- The duke of Clarence married to the princess of Saxe-Meiningen, July 13th.
- The duke of Kent married to a princess of Saxe-Coburg, July 13th.
- The son of Napoleon created duke of Reichstadt by the emperor of Austria, July 22nd.
- A greater degree of heat existed, and continued this summer, than had been experienced for the last four years.
- The national guards of France reduced to their municipal institution, by Louis XVIII., October 3rd.
- Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle signed for the evacuation of France by the Allied Armies, October 9th.
- The shock of an earthquake felt at Inverness, November 10th.
- Her majesty queen Charlotte died at Kew, November 17th.
- The Isabella and Alexander discovery ships arrive at Deptford, after an unsuccessful attempt to explore a north-west passage, November 20th.
- The congress of Aix-la-Chapelle dissolved, November 26th.
- 1817 Adm. Sir J. T. Duckworth, *d.*
J. P. Curran, *d.*
- Kosciuszko, the hero of Poland, *d.*
- J. A. de Luz, F.R.S. *physician and philosopher, d.*
J. R. L. Edgeworth, *d.*
- Dr. Charles Burney, *classic, d.*
- Geo. Anderson, *botanist, d.*
- Rev. W. Beloe, *trans. d.*
M. Suard, *d.*
J. Carter, F.S.A. *archt. d.*
Sir G. Earle, F.R.S. *d.*
- Alex. Monroe, M.D. *d.*
- Pere Elysée, *surg. d.*
J. Glouc, F.R.S. *d.*
1818 Prince of Condé, *d.*
- Platoff, hetman of Cossacks, *d.*
- Hon. Warren Hastings, *d.*
- Sir Sam. Romilly, *d.*
Lord Ellenborough, *d.*
- Sir Philip Francis, *politic. d.*
- Wm. Marshall, *agricult. d.*
Burekhardt, *African traveller, d.*
- H. Repton, *landscape gard. d.*
Hon. Geo. Rose, *d.*
- Dr. Robt. Beatson, *histor. d.*
- John Gifford, *politic. d.*
- John Palmer, *invent. of mail coach syst. d.*
Sir Thomas Bernard, *photolith. d.*
Rev. John Hayter, *antiq. d.*
- M. G. Lewis, *novel. d.*
Dr. T. Coggin, *trans. d.*
- Pat. Breydore, *trans. d.*

A.D.	
1818	The Queen of Spain died suddenly, Dec. 26th
1819	Maria Theresa of Parma, queen of Charles IV. of Spain, died at Rome, January 4th.
—	Charles IV. of Spain died, January 26th.
—	Kotzebue, the dramatist, assassinated, April 2nd.
—	The Southwark bridge opened, March 26th.
—	The old law of wager of battle, in which personal combat was allowed, abolished, June 5th.
—	Tunis loses more than half its population by the plague, June 5th.
—	A dreadful earthquake near Poonah, in the East Indies, which swallowed more than 2000 persons, June 16th.
—	Numerous meetings held about this time, for parliamentary reform, annual parliaments, and universal suffrage, June 23d.
—	A steam vessel arrived from America, July 15.
—	The heat of the weather so great at Vienna, Bagdad, and other places, that several persons dropped down dead in the streets, July 31st.
—	Congress on the affairs of Europe at Carlsbad, August 1st.
—	Great meeting of radical reformers at Manchester; upwards of 70,000 persons present. Soon after the speakers opened the proceedings, a military force arrived to disperse the meeting, which occasioned great confusion; in the midst of which five or six persons lost their lives; more than one hundred were wounded, August 16th.
—	Great distress from the extreme severity of the weather, December 31st.
1820	Society for the relief of the houseless poor founded in London, January 14th.
—	The duke of Kent, father of queen Victoria, died, January 23d.
—	George IV. king of Great Britain and Ireland, January 29th.
—	• Commencement of a revolution in Spain. The cortes of 1812, proclaimed, January.
—	The Cato street conspiracy detected, Feb. 23rd.
—	Fifteen thousand houses and five hundred people destroyed by a fire at Canton, March 3d.
—	A bill of pains and penalties presented against queen Caroline in the house of Lords, July 5th, abandoned November 10th.
—	The duke of Berri assassinated by Lovel, February 13th.
—	Revolution in Naples and Piedmont suppressed by Austria
1821	The Floridas ceded by Spain to the United States of America.
—	The bank of England resumes cash payment, May 6th.
1819	Malcolm Laing, <i>histor. d.</i>
—	Dr. Wolcot (Peter Pindar), <i>poet. d.</i>
—	Sydenham Edwards, <i>botanist. d.</i>
—	Dr. John Playfair, <i>mathemat. d.</i>
—	Sam. Lysons, F.R. and A.S.S. <i>antiq. d.</i>
—	Jas. Forbes, F.R.S. <i>oriental mem. d.</i>
—	Prince Blucher, <i>d.</i>
—	Sir Walter Farquhar, <i>phys. d.</i>
—	Dr. Pugh, <i>miscell. d.</i>
—	Dr. B. Moseley, <i>phys. d.</i>
—	John Bowles, <i>politic. d.</i>
—	Dr. Cyril Jackson, <i>d.</i>
—	M. Brunton, <i>noct. d.</i>
—	Dr. O. Schwartz, <i>bot. d.</i>
—	F. H. Jacobi, <i>Germ. philos. d.</i>
1819	Sir A. Piggott, <i>d.</i>
—	Edw. Bird, <i>painter, d.</i>
1820	Sir J. Banks, <i>pres. R. S. d.</i>
—	J. Bill, <i>surgeon. d.</i>
—	Rev. W. Took, <i>biog. d.</i>
—	Dr. J. Murry, <i>chem. d.</i>
—	W. Hayley, <i>poet. d.</i>
—	Volney, <i>hist. d.</i>
—	Dr. Isaac Miller, <i>d.</i>
—	H. Andrews, <i>astron. d.</i>
—	Sir Home Popham, <i>d.</i>
—	Brugnatelli, <i>philos. d.</i>
—	B. West, <i>pres. R.A.d.</i>
1821	Mrs. Inchbald, <i>dram. d.</i>
—	F. Hargrave, <i>lawyer, d.</i>

- A.D.**
- 1821** Napoleon Bonaparte died at St. Helena, May 5th.
- Mechanics' institutions established in England.
- George IV. crowned, July 19th.
- Queen Caroline died, August 7th.
- 1822** The Greeks declare themselves free.
- Disturbances in Ireland induced by distress; Mexico declared independent.
- Independence of Brazil, Don Pedro emperor.
- 1823** The mediation of foreign powers rejected by the Spanish Cortes.
- The king of Spain removed to Cadiz, March.
- Cadiz invested by a French army.
- England sends consuls to the New South American States.
- The revolution in Spain terminates in favour of the Spanish king.
- † Pope Leo XII.
- 1824** The British defeated by the A-Bootees, January 21st.
- Burmese war.—Rangoon taken, May 5th.
- Iturbide ex-emperor of Mexico, having landed in Mexico, is captured and shot, July 19th.
- Charles X. king of France, September 16th.
- War between the Turks and Greeks.
- 1825** Francis I. king of the two Sicilies.
- France declares the independence of St. Domingo.
- The Egyptians defeat the Greeks, the latter being hard pressed, seek the aid of England.
- The first stone of the new London Bridge laid, June 15th.
- Dreadful earthquake at Algiers, March 2nd.
- Mr. Adams president of the United States, March 4th.
- Nicholas I. emperor of Russia, November 1st.
- Great commercial panic throughout England, numerous failures of bankers, December.
- 1826** Bhurtpore taken by the British, January 3d.
- The treaty of navigation between France and England concluded, January 29th.
- Don Pedro emperor of Brazil, March 10th, he abdicates the crown of Portugal in favour of his daughter, Donna Maria da Gloria.
- Popular risings in Portugal against the charter granted by Don Pedro.
- The bank of England establishes branch banks.
- Lotteries cease in England, October 18th.
- Revolt of the Janizaries in Constantinople and reorganization of the army on the European model, June.
- First illuminated circular clock introduced in London at St. Brice's, Fleet-street, Dec.
- 1827** The duke of York dies Jan. 22nd. The duke of Wellington appointed commander-in-chief.
- Canning, premier, April 10th.
- 1821 J. Rennie, *engrin. d.*
J. Donaghy, *carp. d.*
- 1822 Canova, *sculpt. d.*
Sir Wm. Mitchell, *astron. d.*
— J. Adam, M.P. *polit. d.*
— P. B. Shelly, *poet. d.*
— J. Emery, *carp. d.*
— E. D. Clarke, *astron. d.*
- 1823 Belzoni, *Egypt. d.*
— J. P. Kemble, *act. d.*
— Cartwright, *improving machine. d.*
— E. Jenner, M.D. *d.*
— D. Ricardo, *polit. d.*
— W. Coombe, *mus. d.*
— C. Babbage, *math. d.*
— W. Playfair, *d.*
- 1824 M. Botzaris Greek *polit. d.*
— Lord Byron, *poet. d.*
— F. Davis, *mus. d.*
— T. E. Bowditch, *astron. d.*
— S. L. G. *astron. d.*
— C. Smith, *carp. d.*
— W. F. G. *astron. d.*
— Cartwright, *reform. d.*
— T. Keim, *math. d.*
— T. Maurice, *jurist. d.*
- 1825 Mrs. Bingham, *d.*
— Martyn, *bot. d.*
— Dr. A. Ross, *encl. d.*
— G. C. Adams, *ling. d.*
— Rev. C. Waller, *poet. d.*
— 1826 Weber, *music. d.*
— Talma, *actor. d.*
— Bp. Heber, *poet. d.*
— Sparks, *chemist. d.*
— Flaxman, *sculpt. d.*
— Lavoisier, *phys. d.*
— Ince, *novelist. d.*
— Voss, *phil. d.*
— Poyser, *astron. d.*
— W. M. Mitchell, *bot. d.*
— Poyser, *astron. d.*
— R. P. Adams, *astron. d.*
— T. Howard, *astron. d.*
— Laplace, *astron. d.*
— Dr. Kitchener, *mus. d.*
- 1828 V. Monti, *it. po. d.*
— Dr. Gal. phrenol. *d.*
— Dr. Wollaston, *nat. phil. d.*
— Cox, *trav. d.*
— C. G. Adams, *astron. d.*

A.D.

- 1827 The duke of Wellington and six other members resign, April 12th.
 — Canning died, August 8th.
 — Lord Goderich, premier, August 11th, Wellington again accepts command of the army.
 — The French national guard disbanded, April.
 — Battle of Navarino, October 20th.
- 1828 The presidency of Greece assumed by the count Capo d'Istria, Jan. 18th.
 — The duke of Wellington, premier, Jan. 25th.
 — War declared by Russia against Turkey, April 26th.
 Don Miguel the regent of Portugal assumes the title of king, June 24th.
 The London University opened, Oct. 1st.
- 1829 York Minster set on fire by Jonathan Martin, a maniac, Feb. 2nd.
 — A. Jackson, president of the United States, Feb. 16th.
 — Pope Pius VIII., March.
 Extensive failures at Glasgow in the cotton trade.
 — Catholic relief act passed, April 13th.
 — Turkey acknowledges the independence of Greece, Sept. 29th.
- 1830 William IV. king of Great Britain and Ireland, June 26th.
 — Algiers taken by the French, July 5th.
 — Charles X. of France abolished the liberty of the press, and changed the mode of election, which caused a revolution, July 26th, 27th, 28th, and the expulsion of the royal family.
 — Louis Philippe, king of the French, Aug. 9th.
 — Revolution commenced by the Belgians at Brussels, August 25th.
 Revolution in Brunswick, Warsaw, and Switzerland. Europe much disturbed by political commotions.
 — Liverpool and Manchester railway opened.
 — Huskisson killed by an accident Sept. 15th.
 — France acknowledges the South American republics independent, Sept. 30th.
 — Ferdinand II. king of Naples, November.
 — Incendiarism prevails in Kent.
 — The association of Irish volunteers for the repeal of the union declared by government illegal, Oct. 30th.
 — Termination of the river Niger discovered, Nov. 18th.
- 1831 The cholera at St. Petersburg, January.
 — Pope Gregory XVI. (Cardinal Capillari,) Feb. 2nd.
 — Revolution in Brazil, April.
 — Prince Leopold elected king of the Belgians, June 4th.
 — New London Bridge opened, August 1st.
 — The cholera ravages Turkey.
- 1828 Mrs. Damer sculpt. d.
 — O'Connor, *Irish antiquary*, d.
 — H. M. Williams, *math.* d.
- 1829 Sir H. Davy, *phil.* d.
 — W. Shield, *music* d.
 — F. von Schlegel, *Ger. philos.* d.
 — J. Harrison, *archit.* d.
 — Terry, *comed.* d.
 — Johnston, *actor*, d.
 — J. Mann, *mineral.* d.
- 1830 W. Hazlitt, *lit.* d.
 — Sir T. Lawrence, *pres. R.A.* d.
 — F. A. Winsor, *des. at gas light*, d.
 — G. Dawe, *paint.* d.
 — Huskisson, *com. reformer*, d.
 — Major Rennell, *trav.* d.
 1831 W. Roscoe, *hist.* d.
 — Mrs. Siddons, *actress*, d.
 — J. Abercromby, *med.* d.
 — Aug. Lafontaine, *fr. roman.* d.
 — J. Northcote, *R.A.* d.
 — H. Mackenzie, *novel.* d.
 — R. Kreutzer, *violin.* d.
 — J. Quick, *comed.* d.
 — R.W. Elliston, *actor*, d.
- 1832 Crabbe, *poet*, d.
 — Sir Walter Scott, *poet and novel.* d.
 — Dr. Adam Clark, d.
 — Munden, *comed.* d.
 — Dr. Bell, d.
 — Jeremy Bentham, d.
 — Goethe, *poet*, d.
 — Baron Cuvier, *zool.* d.
 — Spurzheim, *phrenol.* d.
 — A.M. Porter, *novel.* d.
- 1833 Sir J. Stephenson *music.* d.
 — J. O'Keefe, *dramatic author*, d.
 — W. Sotheby, *poet*, d.
 — Ed. Kean, *actor*, d.
 — Hannah More, d.
 — W. Wilberforce, d.
 — Rev. Rowland Hill, d.
- 1834 T. Stothard, *paint.*

- A. D.**
- 1831** The Russians capture Warsaw, Sept. 9th.
 — Riots in Bristol, October.
 — Riots in Jamaica by the negroes, December.
 — Riots at Lyons, November.
- 1832** The cholera in London, January.
 — The cholera at Paris, March.
 — The reform bill passed, June 7th.
 — Antwerp captured by the French, December.
- 1833** Andrew Jackson President of the United States, March 1st. re-elected.
 — Isabella II. queen of Spain, Sept.
 — An earthquake felt in Nottinghamshire, July 13th.
 — An earthquake felt at Washington, United States, July 27th.
- 1834** Lord Melbourne, premier, July 18th.
 — Trades union demonstration, April 21st.
 — Slavery terminates in the British Colonies, August 1st.
 — New poor law bill passed, August 8th.
 — The British parliament houses burnt, Oct. 16th.
 — Sir Robert Peel, premier, Dec. 26th.
- 1835** Ferdinand I. emperor of Austria, March 2nd.
 — The Melbourne ministry revived, April 18th.
 — Fieschi attempts to assassinate Louis Philippe, July 18th.
- 1836** Donna Maria, queen of Portugal, married to the Duke of Saxe Coburg, January 1st.
 — Silver groats issued, Feb. 3d.
 — The constitution of 1820 proclaimed at Lisbon by the queen regent of Portugal, Sept. 9th.
- 1837** Van Buren, President of the United States, March 4th.
 — The independence of Texas recognised by the United States, March 8th.
 — Victoria, queen of Great Britain and Ireland, June 20th.
 — The Duke of Cumberland king of Hanover.
 — Riots in Canada suppressed, December.
- 1838** The Royal Exchange, London, burnt, Jan. 10th.
 — Coronation of Queen Victoria, June 28th.
 — The London and Birmingham railway opened throughout its entire length, 112 miles, August 17th.
 — Slavery abolished in the East Indies, Aug. 1st.
 — Chartist meetings declared illegal, Dec. 12th.
- 1839** Captain Elliott arrested by the Chinese, and £3,000,000 worth of British opium destroyed, April.
 — Abdul Medjed, emperor of the Turks.
 — Cabul entered by the British, August 7th.
 — The subjects of the Roman Catholic states prohibited from carrying on the slave trade, December.
- 1840** The uniform penny postage commenced, January 10th.
 — Queen Victoria marries Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, February 10th.
- 1834** R. Lardner, *disc. of source of the Niger*, d.
 — La Fayette, d.
 — S. T. Coleridge, *poet*, d.
 — J. Heath, *engrav.*, d.
 — G. Bland, *M. D.*, d.
 — Sennelecker, *inven. of lithogr.*, d.
 — Telford, *engineer*, d.
 — S. Lee, *astron. and math.*, d.
1835 Mrs. Hemans, *poet.*, d.
 — T. R. Malthus, *polit. econ.*, d.
 — W. Cobbett, *polit. econ.*, d.
 — Jas. Hogg, *poet.*, d.
 — H. Hunt, *reformer*, d.
 — C. Mathews, *actor*, d.
 — C. Lamb, *M. lit.*, d.
1836 Dr. Valpy, *classic*, d.
 — B. Wyatt, *archt.*, d.
 — Seymour, *caricaturist*, d.
 — G. Colman, *jun. dram. author*, d.
 — W. Godwin, *novel.*, d.
 — N. Drake, *essay.*, d.
 — J. Gillies, *hist.*, d.
 — J. H. Wiffen, *poet.*, d.
 — N. M. Rothschild, d.
1837 S. Wesley, *music.*, d.
 — J. Soane, *arch.*, d.
 — R. Westall, *R. A.*, d.
 — T. Constable, *R. A.*, d.
 — Dr. Mavor, *educat.*, d.
 — Dr. Marshman, *Chinese tran.*, d.
 — E. Donovan, *nat. hist.*, d.
1838 Dr. Jamieson, *philol.*, d.
 — T. Attwood, *music.*, d.
 — A. Ashe, *music.*, d.
 — Fred Ries, *music.*, d.
 — Haller, *hist. Switz.*, d.
 — Mrs. Grant, *epic.*, d.
 — Goddard, *woodcra.*, d.
 — Mrs. Maclean (L. E. L.) *poet.*, d.
 — T. Morton, *dram.*, d.
 — Bn. de Moll, *math.*, d.
1839 C. Rossi, *sculpt.*, d.
 — Sir W. Beechey, *R. A.*, d.
 — Lalande, *astron.*, d.
 — Mori, *music.*, d.
 — T. H. Bayley, *poet.*, d.
 — J. Galt, *novel.*, d.
 — W. Smith, *quadr.*, d.

A D.	
1810	Canton blockaded by the British, June. William I. of Holland abdicates and is succeeded by his son William II., October 7th.
—	War in Syria, Jean d'Acre taken by the British, November 2nd.
—	200 remains of Napoleon brought from St. Helena and placed in the Hotel des Invalides Paris, December 15th.
1841	Fortifications of Paris commenced, January.
—	General Harrison president of the United States, March 4th.
—	Tyler president of the United States, April 5th.
—	Canton capitulates to the British, May.
—	Amoy captured by the British, August.
—	The President steam ship lost.
—	A new ministry formed, Sir Robert Peel premier, August.
—	The prince of Wales born, Nov. 9th.
—	Great fire at the Tower of London,
1842	The Anglo Indian troops in all about 13,000 massacred in the Khoord pass by the Afghans, January 1st. 12th.
—	Convocation of ministers of the church of Scotland held at Edinburgh.
—	Earthquake in St. Domingo 4,000 lives lost May 7th.
—	Chartist riots in many parts of England.
—	Peace concluded between England and China, August 2nd.
—	The Society Islands occupied by the French, September 8th.
1843	E-sparrero dissolves the Spanish Cortes which were to meet in April, January 3rd.
—	Seinde declared a British province, February.
—	The Rebecca riots in Wales.
—	Pont-a-Pitre in Guadeloupe destroyed by an earthquake.
—	The duke of Sussex died, May 1th.
—	The Thames tunnel opened, it cost £116 000, March 23rd.
—	Disruption of the church of Scotland.
—	Anti-liberal revolution in Spain, July.
—	Bloodless revolution in Greece, September.
1844	Daniel O'Connell and his coadjutors tried for conspiracy, found guilty, fined and committed to prison, they were afterwards liberated in consequence of the reversal of the judgment of the Irish court by the House of Lords.
—	Tangier bombarded by the French, August.
—	The new Royal Exchange opened, October.
—	The king of Saxony visits England, May 28; the emperor of Russia, June 1; and the king of the French, Oct. 7.
—	Battle of Isly; victory of marshal Bugeaud; peace between France and Morocco.
—	Revolt of Zurbano in Spain suppressed.
—	Death of Charles John (Bernadotte) king of Sweden, March 8, æt. 81.
1839	J. Boaden, <i>ling. d.</i> — Michand, <i>hist. d.</i> — E. Lodge, <i>hist. d.</i> — P. Rigaud, <i>astron. d.</i>
1840	Man. D'Arblay, <i>novel. d.</i> — Blumenbach, <i>n. his. d.</i> — W. Pitts, <i>sculp. d.</i> — Dr. L. Carpenter, <i>miscel. lit. d.</i> — W. J. Ward, <i>engr. d.</i> — Paganini, <i>violinist. d.</i>
1841	J. Chitty, <i>law. d.</i> — J. Hawkins, <i>F.R.S. d.</i> — Sir D. Wilkie, <i>pl. d.</i> — Dr. E. Nares, <i>hist. d.</i> — T. Sharp, <i>antiq. d.</i> — De Candolle, <i>botan. d.</i> — T. Dibdin, <i>ram. d.</i> — Dr. G. Birkbeck, <i>founder of mechanic institutions. d.</i> — F. Chantrey, <i>sculp. d.</i> — Sir A. Cooper, <i>sur. d.</i> — Earl of Elgin, <i>(Elgin marbles. d.)</i> — Theo Hook, <i>novel. d.</i>
1842	Dr. P. Keily, <i>noth. d.</i> — Prof. Hervey, <i>hist. d.</i> — Sir C. Bell, <i>surg. d.</i> — Dr. Channing, <i>m. lit. d.</i> — L. Cferulim, <i>mus. d.</i> — Sismondi, <i>lit. d.</i> — W. Maginn, <i>m. lit. d.</i> — Gen. Shrapnel, <i>cor. of S. arts. d.</i> — Lachmann, <i>n. hist. d.</i> — R. Mudie, <i>n. hist. d.</i>
1843	R. Southey, <i>poet. d.</i> — Dr. Hahnemann, <i>fo. of homoeopathy. d.</i> — F. W. Facs, <i>med. d.</i> — J. Tate, <i>classic. d.</i> — H. N. Coleridge, <i>d.</i> — Loudon, <i>garden. d.</i>
1844	T. Campbell, <i>poet. d.</i> — W. Beckford, <i>Falke. d.</i> — Thorwaldsen, <i>sculp. d.</i> — Esau Hall, <i>lit. d.</i> — J. Abercrombie, <i>phys. d.</i> — Ernest Antony, duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, father of pr. Albert, <i>d.</i> — Lord Sidmouth, <i>d.</i> — Duke of Grafton, <i>d.</i> — Lord Abinger, <i>d.</i> — Sir Francis Burdett, <i>d.</i>

A.D.

- 1844 Religious dissensions in Switzerland; the Catholic cantons introduce the Jesuits and form a *Soubchet*, or separate League.
 -- Sir Henry (afterward lord) Hardinge governor-general of India.
 -- Parliamentary inquiry into the opening of letters at the Post Office.
- 1845 Anti-Corn-Law League agitation.
 -- Sir John Franklin commences his unfortunate Arctic expedition, May 23.
 -- Endowment of colleges at Belfast, Cork, and Galway.
 -- Irish National Education Society incorporated, Sept. 23.
 -- Additional grant to Maynooth College.
 -- Defeat of the Sikhs at Moodkee, Dec. 18; at Ferozeshah, 22.
 -- Great Railway speculations.
 -- Failure of potato-crop in Ireland.
 -- War between the French and the Kabyles in Algeria; massacre in the caves of Dahra.
 -- James Polk, President of the United States, claims the Oregon territory. Annexation of Texas, and war with Mexico.
 -- Discovery of the planet Astræa.
- 1846 Repeal of the Corn Laws, June 26.
 -- Resignation of Sir Robert Peel, June 29.
 -- Lord John Russell prime minister.
 -- Defeat of the Sikhs at Aliwal, Jan. 28; at Sohraon, Feb. 10; Treaty of Lahore, Mar. 9.
 -- Caffre war, April 4.
 -- Oregon Treaty with the U.S., June 12.
 -- Ibrahim Pacha visits London.
 -- Pius IX., pope, makes reforms.
 -- Marriage of the queen of Spain to her cousin, Francis d'Assis, and of her sister to the duke de Montpensier, Oct. 10.
 -- Defeat of the Mexicans by gen. Taylor, and capture of Santa Fé.
 -- Escape of Louis Napoleon from Ham.
 -- Discovery of the planet Neptune, Aug. 4.
 -- Wreck of the steam-packet "Great Britain."
- 1847 Vote of £10,000,000, and other measures, to relieve the famine in Ireland.
 -- Prince Albert Chancellor of Cambridge.
 -- Death of lord Bessborough; lord Clarendon viceroy of Ireland.
 -- Lord Dalhousie governor general of India.
 -- Death of Daniel O'Connell, May 15.
 -- Baron Rothschild elected for London.
 -- Abd el Kader surrenders.
 -- Commercial panic in London.
 -- Submission of the Catholic cantons in Switzerland.
 -- Civil war in Portugal terminated.
 -- Representative government in Prussia.
 -- Discovery of gold in California.
 -- Reforms in Piedmont and Sardina made by Charles Albert.
- 1844 Duke d'Angoulême, *d.*
 -- Sir Hudson Lowe, *d.*
 -- Laflitte, *Parisbancr.* *d.*
 -- Cary, *treas. Dnt.* *d.*
 -- Sir Henry Halford, M.D., *d.*
 -- Granville Perin, *auth.* *d.*
 -- Dalton, *chem.* *d.*
- 1845 Earl Grey, *d.*
 -- Earl Spencer, *d.*
 -- Marquis of Westminster, *d.*
 -- Lord Wharfedale, *d.*
 -- Sir Robert Sale, *gen. in India.* *d.*
 -- Sir T. F. Buxton, *d.*
 -- Sir William Follett, *att. gen.* *d.*
 -- Rev. Sidney Smith, *d.*
 -- Gen. Jackson, *former Pres. U.S.* *d.*
 -- Sir R. Smurke, *arch.* *d.*
 -- Col. Guirwood, *d.*
 -- Thos. Hood, *auth.* *d.*
 -- J. F. Daniell, *prof. chem.* *d.*
 -- Mrs. Fry, *d.*
- 1846 Lord Metcalfe, *d.*
 -- Sir George Murray, *d.*
 -- Sir Chas. Wetherell, *d.*
 -- Sir N. C. Tindal, *Ch. J. Com. P.* *d.*
 -- Sir Chas. Wolseley, *d.*
 -- Thos. Clarkson, *anti-slave-trade.* *d.*
 -- Haydon, *painter.* *d.*
 -- Louis Bonaparte, *ex-king of Holland.* *d.*
 -- Bessel, *astron.* *d.*
 -- Liston, *actor.* *d.*
 -- H. Gally Knight, *d.*
 -- Mrs. Cornwall B. Wiltson, *d.*
 -- R. Plumer Ward, *d.*
- 1847 Adelaide, *sister of Louis Philippe.* *d.*
 -- Maria Louisa, *widow of Napoleon.* *d.*
 -- Charles, *archduke of Austria.* *d.*
 -- Earl of Harrowby, *d.*
 -- Prince Polignac, *d.*
 -- Palatof, *of Saragossa.* *d.*
 -- Robt. Fellowes, *d.*
 -- Dr. Thos. Chalmers, *d.*
 -- Jas. M. Culloch, *prof.* *d.*
 -- F. Mendelssohn, *d.*

A.D.		
1847	The planets Hebe, Iris, and Flora discovered.	1847 Geo. Byng, <i>M.P. d.</i>
1849	Chartist demonstration suppressed, April 10.	— J. Walter, <i>Times, d.</i>
—	Defeat of Moolrai, June 18.	1848 Lord George Bentinck, <i>d.</i>
—	Smith O'Brien's attempted rebellion on Boulagh Common, July 29; he is convicted of high-treason, and condemned, Oct. 9.	— Lord Melbourne, <i>d.</i>
—	Defeat of the Sikhs on the Chenab, Nov. 22; at Ramnuggur, Dec. 3.	— Lord Ashburton, <i>d.</i>
—	Reform banquet prohibited at Paris, Jan. 19.	— Ibrahim Pacha, <i>d.</i>
—	Abdication of Louis Philippe, Feb. 21.	— Duchess of Saxe-Gotha, <i>d.</i>
—	French Republic proclaimed, Feb. 26.	— Earl Powis, <i>d.</i>
—	National Assembly meets, May 4.	— Dr. Howley, <i>archbp. of Cant., d.</i>
—	Insurrection and barricades, June 23.	— Dr. Mant, <i>bp. of Down, d.</i>
—	Louis Napoleon elected President, Dec. 20.	— Sir John Barrow, <i>d.</i>
—	Free constitutions given by the K. of Sardinia, the pope and the G. duke of Tuscany.	— Sir N. H. Nicolas, <i>d.</i>
—	Revolts, at Palermo, Jan. 12; at Parma, Mar. 19; at Vienna, 22; at Milan, 17—23; at Vienna, 13—15; at Berlin, 18; at Prague, June 12; in Holstein and Schleswig, Mar. 23; at Rome, Nov. 15.	— Sir Sam. Meyrick, <i>d.</i>
—	Charles Albert defeated at Milan, Aug. 5.	— Vis. Chateaubriand, <i>d.</i>
—	The insurgents surrender Vienna, Oct. 30.	— Caroline Herschel, <i>d.</i>
—	Insurrection in Hungary, September 25.	— John Quincy Adams, <i>d.</i>
—	Ferdinand, emperor of Austria, resigns to his nephew, Francis Joseph, December 2.	— Dr. Prichard, <i>d.</i>
—	Sir H. Bulwer dismissed from Madrid, May 19.	— H. Zschokke, <i>last. d.</i>
—	Bishopric of Manchester founded.	— Berzelius, <i>chem. d.</i>
—	Chloroform an anæsthetic.	— Chas. Heath, <i>engr., d.</i>
—	The planet Metis discovered.	— Donizetti, <i>mus., d.</i>
1849	Surrender of Mooltan, January 2.	— George Stephenson, <i>engin., d.</i>
—	Defeat of the Sikhs at Chillianwallah, Jan. 13; at Goojerat, February 21.	— Capt. Marryatt, <i>auth. d.</i>
—	Annexation of the Punjab, March 29.	— Sir Thos. Baring, <i>d.</i>
—	Navigation laws altered.	— Edw. Baines, <i>M.P. d.</i>
—	Sale of Encumbered Estates in Ireland.	— Jas. Watt, the son, <i>d.</i>
—	Visit of queen Victoria to Ireland, August 6.	— Isaac D'Israeli, <i>auth. d.</i>
—	Great Britain and France encourage Turkey to resist the demands of Russia.	1849 Adelaide, <i>qn. dow. d.</i>
—	French expedition to Rome, April 17.	— Mehemet Ali, <i>d.</i>
—	Russia assists the emperor of Austria in Hungary; surrender of Gorcey and flight of Kossuth, July 13.	— Lord Auckland, <i>d.</i>
—	Revolts in Dresden, May 3; Cologne, 10; Baden, 14.	— Lady Blessington, <i>d.</i>
—	Death of William III., king of Holland; accession of his son, William IV.	— Dr. Copleston, <i>bp. of Landaff, d.</i>
—	Charles Albert defeated at Novara, March 23; resigns his crown to his son, Victor Emanuel II., 26; dies at Oporto, July 28.	— Prince Hohenlohe, <i>d.</i>
—	Abbas Pasha, viceroy of Egypt.	— Maria Edgeworth, <i>d.</i>
—	General Taylor, president U.S.	— Sir M. J. Brunel, <i>eng. d.</i>
—	The planet Hygiea discovered.	— Marshal Bugeaud, <i>d.</i>
1850	British fleet before Athens, January 18; submission of King Otho, April 27.	— J. K. Polk, <i>ex-pres. U.S. d.</i>
—	Diplomatic intercourse with Spain renewed.	— Bernard Barton, <i>po. d.</i>
—	Koh-i-noor diamond brought to England.	— Ebenezer Elliott, <i>po. d.</i>
—	Death of Sir Robert Peel, July 2.	— Hartley Coleridge, <i>auth. d.</i>
		— Horace Twiss, <i>auth. d.</i>
		— Mde. Catalani, <i>sing. d.</i>
		— Sir Chas. Forbes, <i>d.</i>
		— Marshal Molitor, <i>d.</i>
		— Sir Robert Wilson, <i>d.</i>
		1850 Duke of Camb., <i>d.</i>
		— Louis Philippe, <i>d.</i>
		— Taou Kwang, <i>Chinese emperor, d.</i>
		— Lord Jeffrey, <i>Edin. Rev. d.</i>

A.D.

- 1850 Papal Bull to erect a Roman Catholic hierarchy in England, October 19.
 — Submarine telegraph between England and France.
 — Britannia tubular bridge over the Menai, September 13.
 — Terrific storm at Dublin, April 18.
 — Victory of the Danes at Idstedt, July 26.
 — Revolt in Hesse Cassel, September 14.
 — Threatened war between Austria and Prussia; mutual disarming.
 — Harbour of Sebastopol completed.
 — Death of General Taylor; Mikand Fillmore, president U. S.
 — Nineveh antiquities deposited in the British Museum.
 — Planets Parthenope, Victoria, and Egeria discovered.
 1851 "Ecclesiastical Titles" Act passed.
 Lord John Russell resigns and resumes office.
 — Census, March 31; population of the United Kingdom, 27,738,940.
 — Grand Exhibition at London, opened May 1.
 — First discovery of gold in Australia, May 14.
 — Burmese war, November 27.
 — Resignation of lord Palmerston.
 — Coup d'Etat at Paris, Dec. 2; Louis Napoleon re-elected, 23.
 — Submission of Holstein and Schleswig, June 11.
 — Railway in Egypt.
 — Rebellion in China.
 — The planets Irene and Eunomia discovered.
 — Saldanha expels the Thonar ministry in Portugal.
 1852 Resignation of lord John Russell, Feb. 21.
 — Ministry of the earl of Derby, Feb. 23.
 — Death of the duke of Wellington, Sept. 14, æt. 84; public funeral, Nov. 18.
 — Burmese war terminates; Pegu annexed to British India, December 20.
 — Resignation of lord Derby, December 28.
 — Coalition ministry of lord Aberdeen.
 — Submarine telegraphs between England and Ireland.
 — Napoleon III. emperor of France, Dec. 2.
 — Discovery of the planets Psyche, Thetis, Melpomene, Fortuna, Calliope, Thalia, Massilia, and Lutetia.
 — Persecution of Protestants in Tuscany.
 1853 Union of Great Britain and France to protect Turkey against Russia.
 — Marriage of the French emperor, Jan. 30.
 — Junction of the British and French fleets in the Mediterranean, April 1.
 — The Russians occupy Moldavia and Wallachia, July 3.
 — War declared by Turkey, September 18.
 — Defeat of the Russians at Oltienitza by Omar Pacha, November 1.
 1850 Sir Launcelot Shadwell, *ecc. canon. d.*
 — Sir Gordon Bremer, *d.*
 — Sir M. A. Shee, *Pres. R. A. d.*
 — Sir W. Allan, *R. A. d.*
 — Duke of Palmella, *d.*
 — W. Wordsworth, *po. d.*
 — Lieut Warhorn, *R. N. d.*
 — Dr. A. Neander, *ecc. hist. d.*
 — Dr. Ingram, *Saxon chron. d.*
 — Wm. Westall, *R. A. d.*
 — R. J. Wyatt, *sculp. d.*
 — Jane Porter, *novelist, d.*
 — Gay Lussac, *chem. d.*
 — W. Kirby, *ornithol. d.*
 1851 Ernest Aug. king of Hanover, *d.*
 — Marquis of Northampton, *d.*
 — Earl of Shaftesbury, *d.*
 — Duchess of Angoulême, *d.*
 — Earl of Cottenham, *d.*
 — Manuel Godoy, *Prince of Peace, d.*
 — Marshal Soult, *d.*
 — J. M. W. Turner, *R. A. d.*
 — W. Wyon, *du. engr. d.*
 — Dr. Lingard, *hist. d.*
 — Joanna Baillie, *d.*
 — Prof. Oersted, *d.*
 — R. Lalor Shiel, *d.*
 — J. Fennimore Cooper, *d.*
 — I. J. Audubon, *ornith. d.*
 1852 E. of Shrewsbury, *d.*
 — Lord Pannure, *d.*
 — Castaños, duke of Baylen, *d.*
 — Thos. Moore, *poet. d.*
 — Daniel Webster, *Am. d.*
 — Henry Clay, *Am. d.*
 — Lady Lovelace (*Ada Lovelace*), *d.*
 — Dr. Murray, *R. C. archbp. d.*
 — A. W. Pugin, *arch. d.*
 — Sir John Guest, *M. P. d.*
 — Dr. Hodgson, *prov. Ethn. d.*
 — Sir H. Jenner Fust, *d.*
 1853 Sultana Valide, *d.*
 — Gd. duke of Weimar, *d.*
 — D. Kaye, *bp. Lincoln, d.*
 — Count Montholon, *d.*
 — Sir C. Napier, *gn. d.*
 — Dr. Butler, *dean, d.*
 — D. Arago, *astron. d.*

A.D.		
1853	Destruction of a Turkish flotilla at Sinope by the Russians, November 30.	1853 Orfila, <i>chem. d.</i>
—	The combined fleets drive the Russians back to Sebastopol, December 27.	—Ludwig Tieck, <i>poet, d.</i>
—	Conferences of Great Britain, France, Austria, and Prussia, at Vienna, December 5.	—Von Haynau, <i>Aus. gen. d.</i>
—	Death of Maria da Gloria, queen of Portugal, Nov. 15; her son, Pedro V., succeeds; his father, regent.	—Prof. Müll, <i>d.</i>
—	The planets Themis, Phocæa, Proserpine, and Euterpe discovered.	—Lord Cloncurry, <i>d.</i>
1854	First embarkation of troops for Turkey, Feb. 22.	—Sir Geo. Cockburn, <i>d.</i>
—	British and French fleets occupy the Baltic, April 12.	—Amelia Opie, <i>d.</i>
—	Bomarsund destroyed, Aug. 16.	—Von Buch, <i>geolog. d.</i>
—	French army embarks for the East, March 13.	1854 Mars. St. Arnaud, <i>d.</i>
—	Odessa bombarded, April 22.	—Lord Plunkett, <i>d.</i>
—	Siege of Silistria raised, June 18.	—Lord Beresford, <i>d.</i>
—	The allies land in the Crimea, September 14.	—Marquis of Anglesea, <i>d.</i>
—	Battle of the Alma, September 20.	—Lord Dentman, <i>d.</i>
—	Capture of Balaklava, September 26.	—Sir T. N. Talfourd, <i>d.</i>
—	Battle of Balaklava, October 25.	—Prof. E. Forbes, <i>d.</i>
—	First bombardment of Sebastopol, Oct. 17.	—Prof. Wilson, <i>d.</i>
—	Battle of Inkermann, November 5.	—J. Montgomery, <i>po. d.</i>
—	Storm in the Black Sea, November 11.	—Card. Angelo Mai, <i>d.</i>
—	Sufferings of the army in the Crimea.	—T. C. Croker, <i>d.</i>
—	Death of Fred. Augustus, king of Saxony, Aug. 9.	—Silvio Pellico, <i>d.</i>
—	Insurrection in Spain; Espartero minister.	—Arthur Aikin, <i>d.</i>
—	Death of Abbas Pasha; Said Pasha viceroy of Egypt.	—J. G. Lockhart, <i>d.</i>
—	Discovery of the planets, Bellona, Amphitrite, Urania, Euphrosyne, Pomona, and Polyhymnia.	—Dr. Routh, <i>et. 100, d.</i>
—	Intercourse between the U. S. and Japan.	—Henry Gunning, <i>d.</i>
1855	Parliamentary inquiry into the sufferings of the Crimean army.	—T. I. Chalou, <i>R. A. d.</i>
—	Resignation of Lord Aberdeen, February 1.	—G. Clint, <i>painter, d.</i>
—	Lord Palmerston prime minister, Feb. 8.	—C. Kemble, <i>actor, d.</i>
—	French emperor and empress visit London.	—Captain Manby, <i>d.</i>
—	The Queen and prince Albert visit Paris.	—Vis. Jocelyn, <i>d.</i>
—	The king of Sardinia visits London; he joins the alliance against Russia.	—Sir Jas. Kempt, <i>d.</i>
—	Improved condition of the Crimean army.	—A. J. Valpy, <i>d.</i>
—	The fleets enter the sea of Azov.	1855 Vis. Strangford, <i>d.</i>
—	Battle of the Tchernaya, August 16.	—Lord Tuoro, <i>d.</i>
—	Fall of Sebastopol, Sept. 10.	—Sir H. De la Beche, <i>d.</i>
—	North-west passage explored by captain McClure.	—Sir Henry Bishop, <i>d.</i>
—	Planets Circe, Leucothea, Fides, and Atlantis discovered.	—Sir Edward Parry, <i>d.</i>
—	Exhibition at Paris, opened May 15.	—Baron Anselm Rothschild, <i>d.</i>
—	Exhibition at Calcutta, January 25.	—Archdeacon Hare, <i>d.</i>
1856	Dispute between Great Britain and the U. S.	—Joseph Hume, <i>M. P. E.</i>
—	Treaty of Paris terminates the war with Russia, April 27.	—G. B. Greenough, <i>geol. d.</i>
—	Harbour of Sebastopol destroyed.	—Dr. Gaisford, <i>classic, d.</i>
—	Birth of the French emperor's son, Mar. 16.	—Karl Fried. Gauss, <i>d.</i>
—	Planet Leda discovered.	—Mary Russell Mitford, <i>d.</i>
		—R. v. R. Montgomery, <i>d.</i>
		—Samuel Rogers, <i>poet, d.</i>
		—Robert Linley, <i>mus. d.</i>
		1856 Sir H. Pottinger, <i>d.</i>
		—Prince Paskiewitch, <i>d.</i>
		—Sir Wm. Hamilton of Edinburgh, <i>d.</i>
		—Henry Goulburn, <i>d.</i>

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